

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *November 1759.*

## ARTICLE I.

*Conclusion of Institutes of Experimental Chemistry: Being an Essay towards reducing that Branch of Natural Philosophy to a regular System. By the Author of the Elaboratory laid open, &c.*

EVERY reader is possessed with an inclination to become acquainted with, at least, the name of an author, whose production he peruses with approbation. We are desirous of attaching esteem to the person of an ingenious writer; we love to compare the lineaments of his mind with the features of his face, and thus to make trial of our own sagacity in physiognomy. But though readers, in general, may be disappointed in this particular, through the modesty of an author, yet Critical Reviewers always peruse an anonymous work with the most satisfaction, as in this case they can give their judgments freely, without the imputation of prejudice. Let their verdict be ever so unbiased; let them be wholly unacquainted with a writer, and his connections; still appearances make against them, while they either applaud or censure, with warmth, an author who has prefixed his name to his performance. Few men write so badly as not to have their circle of admirers; and fewer still think so justly as to draw all readers into their sentiments: a Reviewer, therefore, runs the hazard of being condemned by one set of people, whether he praises or censures, whether he confirms or refutes the opinions of a writer, who, as a man must have his friends and his enemies. It is with pleasure then, that we enter upon a farther review of an author, who has, with so little reason, kept his name concealed from the public. To be parti-

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cular on a work of so extraordinary merit, is a duty which we owe to our readers; and we shall endeavour to fulfil our engagements, by presenting them with a faithful abstract of his philosophy, as far as it can be couched within the limits of an article.

Our author sets out with an introduction, 'explaining the nature of experimental chemistry, and those principles of natural philosophy, respecting the properties of bodies, which are necessary to be previously known, in order to the understanding the several processes and experiments.' Here he treats of the *object, end, and means of chemistry*. The *object*, he calls the composition of the more simple and elementary substances, in order to the forming different species; the analysis, or resolution of such as are compound in their constituent elements; or, the alteration of the sensible qualities of bodies by art. The *final end* of chemistry is, the investigation of the constituents of compound bodies, with the means of their formation and analization; and of the peculiar or specific properties, both of compound and elementary substances. As to the *means*, he divides them into primary and secondary; the first are the natural properties and qualities of bodies, which, by a just application of these bodies to each other, are made to work the desired effects. The second, are the artificial constructions of instruments, for the more commodious application of bodies, under those circumstances that are most conducive to their due action on each other. To reduce the diffusive field of process which this view presents, our author thinks it necessary to reduce the several kinds of bodies to such a system of distribution, into *genera* and *species*, as may render one experiment demonstrative, in general, of the nature of a considerable number of different bodies; different in certain other particulars, but similar with respect to those properties to which the operation relates. Aware, however, of the difficulty that will attend so general a division, on account of the extreme delicacy required, in adjusting the generical characteristics of bodies, by qualities common to each species; the inaccurate and false distribution made by preceding writers, and the abuse of terms adapted to explain their general doctrine, our author prefixes certain explanatory observations to each class of experiments, stating the generical nature of the respective subject, according to the justest principles of distinction. We must acknowledge, that this is a bold attempt, and useful as it is hazardous; but our philosopher seems possessed of ability and industry, and, indeed, a true discriminating sagacity equal to the task.

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The *media*, by which effects are produced in chemical operations, are the natural properties of bodies; such as gravitation, specific attractions, solidity, fluidity, incandescence, combustibility, volatility, fixity, vitrification, putrefaction, and fermentation, each of which are defined and explained in the most satisfactory manner. The *nature* of gravitation, he observes, has been sufficiently explained by the great Sir Isaac Newton, and his followers; but he ought rather to have said, that the *effects* of this universal attraction, taking the reality of the principle for granted, have been explained. With regard to *specific attractions*, by which bodies are combined to form the several compound species, their *existence*, he remarks, has seldom been observed, either by chemists or other natural philosophers: nay, it has been questioned, whether there be, in fact, any such attractions in nature; and whether all the appearances which seem to indicate them, may not be resolved into one general attraction of cohesion, modified so as to produce these different effects, only by the configuration of parts, or other accidental situations, into which the bodies united into one species are brought by some common cause. However, we agree with our author, that the necessity of admitting specific attractions, will clearly appear on the minute investigation of the laws under which they act. These laws are clearly demonstrable, though no regular system of their nature has hitherto been made; and by a proper application of them, we are able to explain the causes of a multiplicity of phænomena in the mutual action of bodies, and are also offered the means of producing with certainty such changes, even in the whole classes of substances, as are of the utmost consequence and utility in the practice of medicine, and the arts.

These powers in bodies, by which they have a tendency to unite with some other particular kinds, so as by their combination to form a compound body of a new species, are found in all substances; though in some they are confined, as in certain kinds of glass, to a few other species. In others they are more comprehensive, but in no instance, universal, and acting promiscuously on all kinds, as the attraction of gravitation. These powers our author calls *commenstruation*; and to the substances thus attracting each other, he gives the name of *menstrua*, which is an acceptance of the term, somewhat different from the sense in which former writers have applied it. He judiciously remarks, that although the sensible effect, by which the presence of these commenstruations are to be determined, be no other than the union or combination of two or more bodies, so as to

form a third of a different kind ; yet there are various laws, by which the attractive powers are governed in different cases, that render the circumstances necessary to the combination of bodies, extremely various, and the consequences resulting from such combinations very different, with respect to the newly formed body. This, indeed, is an observation strictly to be attended to, if we would make the right use of chemical experiments, and reduce this important branch of philosophy to strict scientific principles. The specific attractions, which existed in the elementary parts of any compound before their commenstruation, usually cease after the combination of such elementary parts ; but the suspension of the specific attractions, peculiar to a body in its simple state, does not always follow on its commenstruation with others, as appears in the instance of vitriol and alkaline salts, which freely combine with water, both in their compound and simple condition. However, as the menstrual combination of bodies is thus often attended with the loss of the specific attractions they possessed, so it is also with the production of such in the compound, as did not exist in the elementary constituents. Again, in other bodies which strongly commenstruate with each other, the specific attractions are, in many cases, limited only to certain respective proportions ; for in combining substances of certain species, the compound becomes neutral, or indifferent to further quantities of any of its constituent parts. This limitation in bodies it is that our author calls *saturation* ; though it must be owned, that with respect to the commenstruation of some kind of bodies, the point of saturation is by no means fixed and equally certain in all circumstances. Cold and heat will vary the degree of attraction : water, for instance, will combine when boiling with a greater quantity of salts, than when it is only of the common temperature of the atmosphere ; however, it is certain, that though the point of saturation be thus variable, yet in the commenstruation with each other of the substances which form the salts, it is otherwise, there being no circumstances that will vary the relative quantities in which they will unite : for no sooner are the elements combined in the due proportions, than the compound becomes invariably neutral to all of them, whether commixed with it before its formation, or afterwards added. In many cases the menstrual power is not limited to any quantity or proportion of the substances of those species which form its objects, but will act on indefinite quantities without any saturation ensuing. One instance of this is seen in water, which will unite with any proportion of vegetable gums, though it refuses to admit salts after the commixture of a certain quantity. Lastly, fluid bodies combining with solids,

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assimilate them in many instances to their own state: in other cases the fluids are assimilated to the solids, and gain a solid form.

These are the most simple and general laws of specific attractions, which our author illustrates by a variety of examples, equally convincing and new; at least with respect to the doctrine he establishes. He next proceeds to consider those general laws which respect the relation of genus and species, as far as attraction is concerned; and this he does in a manner extremely clear, judicious, and methodical. Most species of bodies, he remarks, so similar in their qualities and appearances, as to be classed in the same genus in the general view of nature, have commonly the same specific attractions. This observation, however, admits of some exceptions, and great variations in the degree of almost all from each other. It is true, indeed, in a general sense, that when any two species of different genera will commenstruate, all the other species of each will admit of a menstrual combination. Besides this agreement with regard to the specific attractions betwixt bodies of the same general nature, a similar agreement is found among bodies of different genera, that have nothing in common but such attractions: however, although external appearances, and other qualities, seem to distinguish them into different classes, this similarity in their attractions, our author remarks, deservedly constitutes them of the same genus, considered with relation to their menstrual nature. Nor do all bodies, which may be classed under the same genus from their specific attractions, possess their menstrual power in the same degree. They differ in the force of their attraction, so that the several species of each genus form a series, in which they have a subordinate proportion of power to one another; a difference this, not apparent, from any circumstances of their menstrual action on the species of other genera, with which they will combine, but only in the exertion of a power, that the stronger have of dispossessing the weaker, when the latter are combined with any species of certain other genera. By this superiority of power, we determine the principle effecting this subordination of the attractive powers in the different species of the several genera, and also those changes wrought in bodies in the operation either of nature or of art. To illustrate this, our ingenious author goes on,

‘ When any two bodies of a different genus are combined, and a third of the same genus with either of them is added under the circumstances proper for their commenstruation, such

third will not for the most part commenstruate with them, so as to become an additional element to the compound ; but if it be of a superior or higher degree of attraction, than that in the compound which is of its own genus, it will commenstruate with the other of the different genus from itself, notwithstanding the state of combination in which this was before with that of its own. The consequence of such commenstruation betwixt the stronger thus added, and that of a different genus from it, will then be, not only a combination betwixt them, but an absolute separation of the third or weaker of its own genus from the other : which weaker, having its action superseded, and being thus dispossessed and separated, will regain its original state ; and either collect itself into a concrete body or mass, by the difference of its specific gravity from that of the new compound, where the circumstances admit of it ; or remain simply commixt with it, without, nevertheless, being further united by any menstrual combination. This principle may be illustrated by a great multiplicity of instances : of which however those offered in the following experiments may suffice.

‘ Take silver, and dissolve it in spirit of nitre according to the manner directed hereafter in the experiments on silver ; and then add filings of copper slowly to the solution, and it will commenstruate with the spirit of nitre and separate the silver : which will fall to the bottom of the vessel. Pour off the fluid afterwards from the sediment ; and then put into it small iron bars, which will separate the copper, in the same manner as that before separated the silver. Proceed then to use chalk, volatile alkaline salt, and fixt alkaline salt, in the same manner ; and they will all successively act with like power on the spirit of nitre ; and each commenstruating with it, dispossess that with which it was combined before.’

The same doctrine of separation, which he calls *departure*, he illustrates in the case of acids, by an experiment equally conclusive with the former, observing, that as the principal alterations, both in the operations of nature and art, are wrought in bodies by this means, it is of the highest importance to distinguish properly this kind of *decomposition*, from that *analization* produced by fire, or other means. He then remarks, that instances offer, where some species do not refuse to commenstruate with a compound, of which one of the constituents is another species of the same genus, and of inferior attraction to itself : where two species of the same genus, though of different degrees of attraction, will commenstruate with some species of another

another genus, when mixed in a certain proportion, to which genus, however, they are each absolutely neutral, while they remain in a simple and separate state ; with other peculiarities of an analogous nature.

Our author likewise takes notice, that all species of the same genus, do not differ so from each other in the proportion of their attraction, as to be capable of making what he calls a *depart* one of the other, by their action, from the bodies of any other genus with which they may be combined. In cases wherein solid bodies are combined with fluids in a state of solution, if a *depart* be made of the former, it will resume its original state, on being separated from that which produced its change into a liquid ; and becoming thus again solid, it will subside to the bottom of the vessel in form of a powder ; an effect which chemists have called *precipitation*, though it was never so clearly stated as by our author.

In cases where two bodies of different genera are combined, of which one being originally solid, is rendered fluid by the other, and kept in a state of solution, if a third be added of the same genus with the dissolving species, but such as would render it, when commixt with it, a corroding menstruum to the other species, the same effect of corrosion will still follow, notwithstanding the solid body was before dissolved by the other species. The reason of this is, that the third body, thus added, will conjoin with both the others ; and the dissolving power being now changed into the corroding action, the compound will assume a solid form of the same kind as would have been produced, had the two bodies of the same species been commixt before their addition to the solid body. Hence, a precipitation will ensue, resembling in its appearance the separation made by *departure* ; and this our author calls *precipitation by corrosion*, to distinguish it from the proper *precipitation*, where the solid body is separated from that which held it in a dissolved state.

Some cases there are, where two compounds being put together, under the proper circumstances, a double commenstruation and *departure* will be produced ; and other instances are frequent, where, in the commixture of bodies, the departs are made, and new compounds produced, in a manner still more complex. As in the common process for the preparation of the corrosive sublimate ; in which green vitriol, crude nitre, sea-salt, and mercury, are put together, in order to obtain a combination of the acid spirit of the sea-salt, and the mercury,

which are the constituents of the sublimate. All the preceding doctrine the ingenious author illustrates, by a variety of examples, and a minuteness of reasoning infinitely more satisfactory than any thing we have seen on the principles of chemistry ; but it would be impossible for us to enter with him into the detail, though we shall beg leave to annex a few more necessary observations to what we have said, that the reader may have a complete view of the doctrine of specific attraction.

Besides the instances of *departs*, which are made by the superior attraction of some body of the same genus with that *departed*, there are others, caused by such as are not of the same genus ; nay, different in every respect, except that of having in common an attraction, with relation to the body from which the *depart* is made. The principle, however, in these *departs* made by bodies of different genera, from those which are departed, is still the same as in the others made by bodies of the same genus : for the respective attraction of the body, which occasions the departure, being greater than the attraction of the body departed, it combines with the third ; and forming a new compound, neutral with respect to the other, causes an absolute separation of it from that with which it was first combined.

The generating, or at least disengaging air, in large quantities, is another attendant effect of commenstruation ; as is likewise the production of heat, in a very intense degree, as appears in the instance of explosive mixtures. To these may be added an instance of one genus of bodies, which commenstruating with water, will produce cold in a greater or lesser degree, according to the nature of the several species of this genus. The genus we mean is, that of salts, the most intense degree of cold arising from neutral salts formed of alkaline salts, either fixt or volatile.—But it would exceed our bounds to enlarge upon this curious subject, which our author treats in so masterly a manner : sufficient it is, that the reader has a general view of the principal laws, and immediate effects, of commenstruation, or the action of substances on each other, in consequence of their specific attractions.

‘ It is necessary, however, says our author, to consider the circumstances, that are constantly necessary to, or required in, particular cases for the exertion of these attractive powers, either in their full, or more limited degrees.

‘ The first and most necessary circumstance required in the commenstruation of all bodies is, that one, or more of them, should

should be then in a state of fluidity, either of a fixt or vaporou<sup>s</sup> kind. For solid or dry bodies, however great may be their mutual attractive powers, are always passive to each other; though brought even into the closest contact, or commixt in the most intimate manner they admit of, while in that state; and such solid bodies require therefore, either to be previously dissolved in some aqueous or other fluid menstruum, to be fused or liquified by heat, or be converted into vapour. Under any of these circumstances of fluidity, the specific attractions take place: the reasons for which will appear obvious to any, who consider the nature of their action in a mechanical view.

‘ Heat is, likewise, in many cases, necessary to the commenstruative action: as, for example, in the case of linseed, and other such oils, and the gums or gum-resins, which they are capable of dissolving, as the arabic, sanderac, and mastic; for all which a boiling heat is required, in order to their commenstruation with those oils: and the same may be found in many other instances. The degree of subordination is likewise changed in some cases by the supervention of heat: as in the instance of chalk with respect to volatile alkaline salts. The first of which will, when combined with acids, be departed, while in a cold state, by the other: but, on receiving the degree of heat, that will analize animal and vegetable substances, will make a depart of the other from any acid with which it may be combined. As appears in the common process for obtaining the volatile sal ammoniacus by means of chalk; where that substance being powdered with sal ammoniacus in the proportion of three of the first to two of the other, and the mixture put in a retort placed in a sand bath, and subjected to a strong heat, the volatile alkaline salt will be separated, by the superior attraction, from the spirit of salt, with which it was combined in forming the sal ammoniacus.

‘ Besides the effect of heat, where it is absolutely necessary to the commenstruation of some bodies, it has a power, with respect to certain kinds, of accelerating the combination, or causing it to be more quickly performed, even in some cases to a very great degree. This principle is well known: and the proper application made of it, practically, in the case of most kinds of solutions; particularly those of saline, gummous, or gelatinous bodies in water: and indeed heat, in a gentler degree, is not only a great medium of art, but of nature also, in pushing forwards those commenstruations, in bodies of almost every kind, by which the changes proper to each intention are brought about,

about, either with respect to the forming the various compounds, or their reseparation into the more elementary species of which they were formed.

‘ There are, nevertheless, some few cases where heat appears to be destructive of the menstrual power. As in the instance of whites of eggs, which combine with water before they have undergone the action of a stronger heat ; but, being exposed to that of boiling water, they concrete ; and, collecting together, form a solid mass, which is not again soluble in water at all. The same is also true of the serum of the blood : for it thickens in its consistence, in like manner, with a boiling heat ; and will no longer suffer a combination with water. It may be justly doubted, however, in both these cases, whether the change be made, by the heat, in the menstrual powers of the bodies, while they continue really the same ; or whether it be not made in the composition of the body, by separating some volatile matter from it ; which flying off, through the means of the heat, renders the remaining part a different compound ; and consequently subject to different laws with regard to its menstrual nature.’

As the complete knowledge of these laws and effects constitutes not only the principal object of experimental chemistry, but a most important branch of natural philosophy, with respect to the explication of the more minute phænomena that occur in the action of bodies in the lesser systems, we need plead no other apology to our readers, for endeavouring to place this curious doctrine in the most intelligible view. To a philosophic mind there will appear a fund of entertaining reflections, couched under this concise system of our author’s, and for such readers alone we intend the present article.

Our author, after some general remarks upon the doctrine of *affinities*, by which former chemists meant specific attractions, proceeds to explain the terms *solidity*, *fluidity*, *incalescence*, *combustibility*, and all the other natural properties and qualities of bodies, with the general laws which govern each ; which subjects he treats in a manner no less distinct, new, and satisfactory, than the former. Afterwards he treats of the general application of the properties and qualities of bodies, to the general intentions of experimental chemistry ; and then describes and illustrates the instruments and necessary utensils in chemical processes, where the artist will find a variety of useful directions, founded upon experience and practice. He, in the next place, enumerates

enumerates the general operations of chemistry under the different heads of levigation, decantation, filtration, combination, *departure*, digestion, exsiccation, distillation, coction, sublimation, fusion, solution, calcination, chrystralization, cementation, scorification, cupellation, and fermentation.

Having finished his remarks on the general processes, he goes on to recite experiments and observations on earths, salts, animal, vegetable, and metallic substances ; but his method will best be understood by an extract.

### EXPERIMENT I.

#### \* Separation of the organisical earth from animal and vegetable substances by incineration.

‘ Take any animal or vegetable substance, and burn it in an open fire, till the ashes appear perfectly white. If the operation be performed on the parts of vegetables, let the ashes be then put into boiling water : and being well stirred, let the mixture be suffered to stand at rest till the earth be wholly subsided, and the fluid become clear. Pour off then as much of the fluid as can be so separated ; and, having added a fresh quantity of water, stir the earth about in it as before ; and, after its subsiding again, pour off this water as the first. Repeat the same a third or fourth time ; and then put the earth into a filter, in which a linen cloth is laid over the paper ; and let the water drain from it till it become of a stiff consistence : when the exsiccation or drying may be completed, by laying it on a board or chalk-stone.

‘ If the calcined parts of animals be the subject, this ablution is unnecessary : as no salts will be produced in them, that will remain with the earth.

#### OBSEERVATION.

‘ This earth will be thus freed, as far as it may be by any means of art, from all other bodies, by the combustion it undergoes in the incineration ; and from the lixiviate salt which is produced, if the subject be from the parts of vegetables, by the ablution.

‘ This operation is seldom performed on vegetable substances for the sake of earth : which is rarely used but for the making cupels and tests, or some such extraordinary purposes ; but frequently for the sake of the lixiviate salt ; which can only be originally

originally produced by the incineration of the proper part of vegetables.

‘ It is, however, more frequently performed on the parts of animals, with a view to the obtaining this earth pure ; and in medicine it is particularly practised on the horns of stags for producing the calcined hartshorn, which was erroneously supposed to have virtues peculiar, and distinct from the earth obtained from parts of other animals, or the other parts of the same. This earth is likewise used, under the name of *calcined hartshorn*, for cleaning silver, and some other parallel purposes, by artifans : but the earth obtained from other kinds of horn, or from bones, is now generally substituted for that of stags-horn, and is, when both are perfectly calcined, the same.’

To conclude, we eagerly wish to see the very ingenious author induced, by the success of the present publication, to continue the sequel, in which he intimates his intention of setting in a clear point of view the nature of phlogiston, vitrification, and colour in bodies ; together with observations explanatory of the production of heat and fire, and a compendious method of performing the leading and capital processes in chemistry. An investigation of the cause of colours in bodies, or that modification of the reflection of the rays of light, occasioning the variations of colours, is, in particular, a curious subject : and the author affirms, that he has discovered the cause of this phænomenon with equally demonstrative certainty, and practical application, as the nature of light itself has been demonstrated by former philosophers. — In a word, we heartily recommend the ingenious *Institutes of Experimental Chemistry*, to all lovers of true science, and those whose talents are sufficient to comprehend the beauty of a just theory, raised upon a few choice and general experiments ; for to such only will this performance be grateful.

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*ART. II. The Modern Part of an Universal History, from the earliest Account of Time. Compiled from Original Writers. By the Authors of the Antient Part. Vol. XI.*

THE volume before us contains a full and complete history of the commerce of the Danes, French, Austrians, Swedes, and Prussians to the East Indies, which concludes the European trade to Asia. This is a subject with which the learned authors seem perfectly acquainted ; and we may venture to recommend the history of the French company in particular, as one of the most masterly performances of the kind in our language. Here they have laid aside the character of compilers, and entered deeply

deeply into the principles which gave birth to this considerable branch of the French commerce. The views of the court, the state of those countries where settlements are established, and the condition of the French marine at the time, and since this company was erected, are all explained with the utmost address and perspicuity. In a word, it is rather a fine political treatise, a series of deductions from facts clearly but concisely related, and a train of judicious and manly reflections, than a bare narrative. It is true the authors were abundantly supplied with excellent materials for their purpose; many of the best writers in France have exercised their pens upon the subject; and there was hardly a voyage made on account of the company to the Indies, but the particulars of it have been transmitted to posterity. However, there is great merit in the application of their materials, which the authors have thoroughly studied, digested, and modelled in such a manner, as to render the present work no less valuable than new. We cannot indeed but admire the variety of matter that is brought into so narrow a compass, without obscurity or confusion, like so many corollaries flowing from one general theorem; but, as it would not be possible to convey an idea of this peculiar merit, by an extract, we must refer our readers to the performance, and content ourselves merely with bestowing our applause, with a warmth that would savour of flattery, could we not honestly declare ourselves free from all prejudices, unconnected and altogether unacquainted with the ingenious writer.

About half the volume is taken up with the preceding histories, and the remainder contains an explicit account of the first discovery of the *Terra australis*, or southern continent, and of the voyages thither by *de Quiros*, *Schouten*, *le Maire*, *Tasman*, and our countryman *Dampier*, together with a variety of arguments evincing the existence of such a tract of land; the advantages that would necessarily result to commerce, from the complete discovery of a country so evidently rich in produce and inhabitants; reasons why this nation in particular ought to prosecute the discovery; maxims relative to this end, deduced from the journals of the above voyagers, with a great number of political reflections, wrote, as it would seem, with a view to rouse the attention of the public, to an object so important to the trade and navigation of these kingdoms.

After reciting all that is known concerning the climate, soil, and produce, the people, their religion, manners, and complexion, with every other circumstance respecting the southern continent, the authors conclude the volume with a short history

of the principal circumnavigators, ' which, say they, we apprehend will be an useful supplement to our history of the East Indies, and southern continent, and no unapt introduction to our account of America.' We must acknowledge, however, that we think this part of their labour misplaced, if at all necessary, in a work of so prodigious extent. As modern navigation arose from the discoveries made in Asia, it was not possible to give the histories of the European companies trading to the East Indies, without reciting as much as was necessary of the history of the circumnavigators: and, as to discoveries made in the west, they ought, in our opinion, immediately to have preceded the history of America. By this method, all repetition might have been avoided; a thing almost impracticable on the present plan.

After a short comparison between the antient and modern navigation, the authors introduce the lives of the circumnavigators, and first of the celebrated Columbus, in the following manner :

' By the application of the loadstone, and the nice theory of the needle, all those inconveniences are removed; the meridian line is known with equal ease and certainty; the mariner is enabled to quit the old and timid manner, to steer boldly into the wide ocean, and to force his passage to the most distant parts of the globe by the shortest, safest, and most expeditious ways imaginable. Such was the invention which enabled the Portugese, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, to make prodigious voyages and discoveries in the east. The success attending their endeavours gave rise to that series of voyages and travels, which soon became no less advantageous to commerce than to society and science in general. The fables of the antients have been supplanted by true history; every part of the globe is found to be inhabited; the superstition of antiquity, with respect to giants, *anthropophagi*, and *men whose heads did grow beneath their shoulders*, have been refuted; the disproportion between the elements of water and earth has been found less than was imagined, and the products of the torrid and frigid zones more valuable and rich than those of temperate climates, contrary to the universal supposition. We therefore imagine it will not be disagreeable to the reader, that the history of the first circumnavigators be here presented in one collected view, as he will hence be able to determine with accuracy what improvements have been made in the theory of navigation, in astronomy, and even the art of building and navigating ships. It will at the same time reflect considerable light upon the discoveries in the East Indies, which our plan obliged us hitherto to relate diffusely, and only as it regarded the several European nations trading thither;

thither; but more particularly on the means by which the vast discovery of the *Terra Australis* and America were made. The method we shall follow is, to recite the material circumstances from the best accounts of those circumnavigators we have; giving at the same time a short history of the lives of those eminent men. Only the principal shall be selected, and these placed according to their dates, in a regular chronology, we shall endeavour to make equally useful and entertaining. We shall distinguish the causes, the consequences, the several improvements in the order of time in which they happened; taking notice likewise of what remains to be done by others, inspired to emulation by the industry, success, and great reputation acquired by those generous discoverers.

As it is universally believed that Don Christopher Columbus first formed an idea of the possibility of sailing round the globe; as he first, by his just and powerful arguments, engaged all the learned in his sentiments, and as he afterwards proved that his theory corresponded not only with speculation and the then received system of the world, but with practice too; we shall begin with an account of this philosopher and hero, whose history is scarcely known to this day, through the gross misrepresentations of some material facts. The strong prejudices with which he had to combat, the reluctance of all the princes in Europe to enter into his measures, and the perseverance with which he pursued them, in contempt of difficulties, dangers, and in spite of the malice of all his enemies, are circumstances we shall dwell upon, as they cannot fail both of engaging the heart of the reader, as well as improving his understanding, as they afford him a striking example to what a pitch of greatness the human mind is capable of arriving by constancy, firmness, and an invariable propensity to what it judges to be virtue.

\* The life of Don Christopher Columbus was written by his son Don Ferdinand, who acquaints us, that he was descended of an ancient family in the territory of the state of Genoa, but does not determine either the time or the particular place of his birth. Christopher had shewn an early passion for the sea, he studied geography and navigation with uncommon avidity, and, when he was very young, distinguished the extraordinary progress he had made by some charts he laid down after a new method, and several projects he began to frame. The Portuguese were at this time the most famous maritime power in Europe; a circumstance which induced Columbus to visit Portugal, where he married, settled, and commenced a trader to the coast of Guiney. By his wife Philippa Nuniz de Paristrello he had children,

dren, which whetted his ardour to increase his fortune by a diligent application to trade, but by means peculiar to himself. His voyages to Guiney were subordinate only to his more extended views, of which he never lost sight from the time he had first framed his idea of the terraqueous globe. For this purpose he made himself a tolerable proficient in the Latin tongue, and in several branches of knowledge; but gave his chief attention to the mathematics, on which he knew the success of his projects depended. During his whole life he maintained the reputation of a man sober, temperate, grave, and devout, of a clear understanding, studious but enterprising, and indefatigable in his pursuits.

His close application to mathematics and maritime affairs, joined possibly to the relations of mariners he had heard, induced him first to think of new discoveries, though the jealousy of the Spaniards has given an invidious turn to this part of his life, and derogated all in their power from his glory, for no other reason than that he was not their countryman. Mariana tells us, that Martin Vincent, a pilot, informed Columbus, when very young, that he was once carried four hundred and fifty leagues west of Cape St. Vincent, where he took up a piece of wood wrought by man's hand, and, as far as he could judge, without iron, which he concluded must come from some western island. Pedro Correa had likewise told him, that he had seen at Puerto Santo a similar piece of timber driven thither by the westerly winds. He also sent Columbus some large canes, containing in each knot about two gallons of water, which he reasonably supposed to be the growth of some country to the west, from the winds having set in that quarter for a course of several weeks. To this was added the relation of the inhabitants of the Azores, who affirmed that strong west and north-west winds had often brought upon the coasts of Graciosa and Fayal certain large pine-trees, canoes formed of the trunk of a tree, and one time two dead bodies of a different complexion and with larger faces than any they had ever beheld. Other circumstances of a similar nature are mentioned by the Spanish writers, which, instead of diminishing the character of Columbus, rather magnify it, by shewing how piercing a wit, how judicious an observer of occurrences, he must have been, who, upon so slender and trivial accidents, could build a project so noble, so useful, and so extensive, as that of the discovery of a fourth part of the globe. The fact, however, upon which the greatest stress is laid, is, that, A. 1484, one Alonso Sanchez, of Huelva, in the country of Niabla, died in the house of Columbus, in the island of Terceira, leaving him all his papers, whence he acquired those lights that directed him in his future great undertakings. Sanchez had traded

traded for many years from Spain to the Canaries, and thence to Madeira. In his last voyage from Madeira he was carried out to sea, and, after a continued course for twenty-nine days, arrived at a certain island supposed to be Hispaniola, where he landed, and took an observation. He kept an exact journal of all the occurrences in his voyage, which, say the detractors of Columbus, afforded him the chief materials for all the discoveries he afterwards made. From hence, say they, he had not only intelligible hints, but a direct plan, a course chalked out for his future operations. But what destroys the credibility of this plausible tale is, that Columbus had actually perfected his scheme, and offered it to his countrymen the Genoese in the beginning of the year, when Sanchez is said to have begun his voyage. Besides, he offered no testimonies from experience; his arguments were founded upon science, deep thought, and pure reason. As the figure of the earth was spherical, it was probable, he said, that the continent on one side was balanced by an equal quantity of land on the other. That as the Portuguese had first discovered islands, and then a vast tract of country, by sailing east, it was in a manner certain, that, by a western course, they should fall in with other islands and another continent. That this was confirmed by the observation in the Cape de Verde islands, that the winds blow for a stated time from the west, which must be owing to a great tract of land on that side; concluding, that this discovery, when ascertained, would be equal in glory, in producing wealth, increasing their commerce, navigation, and industry, to that of the East Indies, which at that time was the admiration and wonder of all Europe.

‘ Hence it is evident, that though Columbus did not actually surround the globe, yet that he was the first who suggested the possibility of such a voyage, who attempted it, and pointed out the means by which it was afterwards effected. Hence also it appears how little he borrowed from the narratives of mariners, of what little use experience could have been to him, and, in short, that his great plan was erected entirely upon a rational idea, an happy turn of thinking, and a sound judgment; that it was a fine theory consonant to reason, but at the same time confirmed by no trials or experiments whatever. The states of Genoa having rejected his proposal, as much beyond their power, and likely to incur the resentment of several maritime princes, Columbus presented it to John the Second, of Portugal, in whose dominions he had resided for a number of years. His majesty appointed commissioners to treat with him, to examine his plan, and give in their sentiments to his privy-council. So treacherously did this board execute their office, that, after

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their artifice had succeeded in drawing out of Columbus his whole sentiments of the project, they advised the king to send a ship to make trial whether it was practicable, endeavouring by every low and mean artifice to rob Columbus both of the glory and advantage that might result from the success of the enterprise. The design, however, miscarried through accident, want of courage and conduct in the persons employed. Columbus discovered the arts made use of to sap his fame and reputation; and so highly was he incensed at it, that he refused to treat a second time with the king, though his majesty earnestly desired it, resolving to apply to the court of London for means to prosecute his plan.

With this view he dispatched his brother Bartholomew Columbus with proper instructions to Henry the Seventh, not doubting but that wise monarch would readily embrace a proposal so manifestly tending to his advantage; but Bartholomew was so unfortunate as to fall into the hands of pirates, by whom he was stripped of every thing, in which poor condition he arrived in England. After some time spent in the utmost distress, he at length found means, A. 1488, to have his proposals communicated to his majesty. They were received with a graciousness and warmth becoming a prudent prince; an agreement was struck up with Bartholomew, in the name of his brother, and all the reason in the world given him to believe that his journey to England would be crowned with success.

Christopher Columbus, in the mean time, hearing of the misfortunes of his brother at sea, repaired to the court of Spain, where he conferred with Martin Alonso Pinçon, one of the ablest mariners of his time, and soon made him so thoroughly apprehend the force of his arguments, that Pinçon offered to attend him in the voyage, if he could bring his project to bear. The next application of Columbus was to Juan Peres de Marcheno, a Franciscan frier, in great repute for his skill in astronomy and geography. Marcheno was not only convinced of the propriety and rectitude of Columbus's scheme, but indefatigable likewise in promoting it; and to him it is in a great measure owing that any countenance was ever shewn to it. He first recommended it to two of the first grandees in Spain, the dukes de Medina Sidonia and Medina Celi. These noblemen, although they did not patronize Columbus with that warmth which his merit so well deserved, yet shewed him great respect, and even countenanced his application to Ferdinand and Isabella, their Catholic Majesties, induced by no other motives than the steadiness, gravity, integrity, and upright conduct, which they observed in

Our great discoverer. Nor was the assistance of his old friend the frier wanting upon this occasion, for he furnished him with the strongest recommendations to the queen's confessor Ferdinand Tolavera, a man of probity and erudition, of considerable weight and influence with their majesties. By means of this priest was it, that Columbus, amidst the persecutions of malice, envy, and national prejudice, at length accomplished his design. To so high a pitch were these invidious artifices carried, that he had frequent intentions to leave the court of Spain, and try his fortune in France; but he was diverted by the frier, the confessor, and Don Alphonso di Quintaniglia, auditor of the revenue, a sensible judicious man, who had taken a liking to Columbus, entertained him at his table, and supplied him with money and necessaries. Soon after the auditor introducing him to the archbishop of Toledo, and the prelate entering properly into the character of Columbus, his affairs began to wear a more favourable aspect. Queen Isabel so warmly interested herself in his behalf, that only two obstructions remained to be surmounted, these were, the expence that would attend the equipping a necessary force, and the high demands of Columbus. As to the first, it amounted to no great sum; but so exhausted was the Spanish treasury by the long wars with the Moors, that some writers affirm the queen offered to pawn her jewels to make up the sum. This difficulty was at length removed by Don Lewis di St. Angelo, an officer of the revenue, who advanced the greatest part of the money. As to the other difficulty, it was overcome by the inflexible constancy of Columbus, who would abate nothing of his first terms, viz. being made viceroy and admiral of the land and seas he should discover, and intitled to a tenth part of the clear profits that should redound to their majesties from the success of his labours. This he obtained; and the articles of agreement were signed at Santa Fe, in the kingdom of Granada, A. 1492.

Preliminaries being thus adjusted, three ships were assigned him, the Santa Maria, which Oviedo calls the Gallega, commanded by Columbus in person; the Pinta, Alonso Pinçon, master; and the Ninna, Vincent Yannes Pinçon, brother to the above-named captain, commander. This Vincent advanced Columbus's proportion of the expence, which, according to the articles stipulated, was one fourth. The admiral's ship was a carrack, or decked ship; the others caravels, or open vessels; and the whole crews amounted to no more than ninety men, according to Herrera, although Peter Martyr, and other historians contemporary with Columbus, make his complement to consist of 120 seamen; a force indeed very inadequate to the

dangers he was about to encounter. Towards the end of July A. 1492, he embarked at Palos, and weighed anchor on the 3d of August. On the 4th the Pinta's rudder got loose, which obliged them to put again into port; an accident that was interpreted into a bad omen by the seamen, but regarded by Columbus in no other light than as it retarded his project. He told the sailors, that no omen was unfortunate where the designs were just, brave, and public-spirited. He bestowed great pains in inspiring them with courage, with just notions of the enterprise they were upon, and with the true principles of navigation and geography, himself performing the office of a tutor, as well as of a commander. By the 11th of this month he had sight of the Canaries, where he continued instructing and refreshing his men till the 7th of September, when he put again to sea. No sooner had the fleet lost sight of land, than the spirits of the seamen began to sink, notwithstanding all the endeavours of Columbus to animate and rouse their courage. They now began to esteem it the project of a rash desperado, and an ideal plan, which must soon hurry them into perdition. But Columbus still inflexibly proceeded with a calm resolution, and undaunted courage and presence of mind, which seemed to work a happy effect upon the minds of the greater part of the crew. He even deceived them in their reckonings, persuading the seamen that they had not passed such a tract of ocean, or got at so great a distance from land, as they imagined. The 14th he took notice of the variation of the needle, which was the first time that phænomenon had fallen under observation. Two days after, grass and herbs, with a great number of grasshoppers and insects, were seen floating on the water, and this he interpreted into a prognostic that land was not far off. For some days following, the same presages, together with sea fowl, and other occurrences, confirmed their conjectures, and raised the spirits and expectations of the drooping mariners. In this train stood affairs, with a favourable gale astern, till the twenty-second, when the wind came to S. S. W. This was no sooner observed by the seamen, than they concluded that God was displeased with the hardy attempt. They reproached Columbus with the most opprobrious and villifying language; nor did they even spare the sacred persons of their Catholic Majesties, who had sent them upon this foolish enterprise, at the instigation of a specious and artful foreigner: they even threatened to throw Columbus overboard if he did not immediately alter his course, and make the best of his way home. All this he bore with the patience of a philosopher, and the undismayed resolution of a soldier. He reasoned with his men in the calmest manner, answered their abuse in the mildest and gentlest terms, promised them large rewards.

rewards if they would persevere in a scheme no less honourable and advantageous to themselves than to him; and at last concluded with a solemn promise to return, if, at the end of three days, land was not discovered. With this prudent conduct, and on these conditions, the mutiny was at that time appeased. Before one day out of the three agreed upon was expired, Columbus perceived by the sun setting, that land was nigh, whereupon he slackened sail, acquainted the crews with the reasons upon which his conjecture was founded; and that same night discovered a fire, to the great joy of all on board. About midnight Rodrigo di Niara discovered land, which they found to be an island fifteen leagues in circumference, one of the Lucayas, called by the natives Guanahani, but by Columbus San Salvador, situated about 950 leagues from the Canaries. Upon going on shore they sung *Te Deum*, and took solemn possession of the island in the name of their Catholic majesties. The natives, who were themselves naked, greatly wondered at the dress and figure of the Spaniards, but much more at the ships, which they took to be large animals. They were of an ordinary stature, well proportioned, their complexion olive, but painted of various colours; a custom observed to prevail among the original inhabitants of many of the islands of the East Indies, the Southern Continent, as well as of America. They were wholly ignorant of the use of iron, and the nature of the weapons, innocently rubbing their hands against the edges of the Spanish swords. In their noses and ears they wore gold rings, which they said came from the south, where there was a king very powerful, and his subjects rich in this kind of metal. On the 15th of October the Spaniards put to sea, and arrived at another island distant about seven leagues from the former. This they called Santa Maria de la Concepcion. The 17th they went to Ferdinand, the women of which were covered from the waist to the knee with cotton petticoats. Soon after they touched at another island, to which they gave the name of Isabella, in honour of her Catholic majesty, who had been so great a promoter of the expedition. Of this, as of all the former, they took solemn possession, using the natives with the most obliging kindness, and presenting them with glass beads, and other baubles, so highly prized among the Indians.

‘ From hence Columbus proceeded to Cuba, which island the natives of Ferdinand and Isabella told him abounded with gold and pearls. Upon his arrival here, two Indians were dispatched to examine the country. After travelling some time, they came to a village containing about fifty houses, where they were kindly welcomed by the natives. As the Spaniards went thither,

they were honoured with incense ; the simple natives believing them to be deities ; a notion they soon found reason to retract. They made offerings to them of bread and roots, kissed their hands and feet, and performed every other possible act of devotion and adoration. In this country the Spaniards saw cotton spring up spontaneously, without any sort of care or culture, and variety of uncommon trees and birds, with which they were wholly unacquainted. What the Spaniards chiefly regarded was the precious metal which the Indians wore in their noses. After this they made all possible inquiry ; to which the natives constantly replied, Cubonacan, meaning that it was found in the middle of Cuba ; but a word the Spaniards interpreted into a different sense, imagining they talked of the Chan of Cathay. Before the departure of Columbus from Cuba, Martin Alonso Pinçon, his former friend, becoming jealous of his success, and fearing lest his reputation might be wholly absorbed in the glory the admiral would acquire from such unexpected discoveries, parted with him, in pursuit of honour which could not be shared with him. After this Columbus sailed for Hispaniola, which at that time the natives called Hayti. Here he took a woman, whom he used with great tenderness, and, by engaging her affections, rendered her an useful agent with the rest of the natives. During his residence in Hispaniola, he entered into the most familiar correspondence with the inhabitants. By the report of the female Indian, they had taken so great a liking to the Spaniards, that the king Guacanagari often invited Columbus on shore, and entertained a high respect and warm friendship for him, and the other seamen. Here Columbus built a fort, to maintain the Spanish pretensions, in which putting a garrison of 38 soldiers, he prepared for his return to Spain. Before this he effected a reconciliation with Pinçon, by means of a letter carried by an Indian, who was astonished to find the Europeans could convey their sentiments in a scrap of paper, not doubting but it must be thro' the mediation of some deity. Columbus left some regulations with the garrison, and a strict charge to live in friendship and harmony with the natives ; upon which he set sail for Spain. On his arrival he immediately went to court, where he was graciously received by the queen, and made to sit down in her presence ; an honour the highest that could be conferred on a subject.

Columbus, on his return, was persuaded that the places he had discovered were islands on the opposite side of that continent to which the Portuguese traded. This was consonant to the system he had set out upon, and to the idea of the terraqueous globe he formed to himself. For this reason, therefore,

he gave those islands the appellation of West Indies. He made several curious astronomical observations, great improvements in navigation, and inspired the Spaniards with courage to trust themselves in unknown seas, by this voyage. In his way home, Columbus, to preserve the memory of this discovery, in case he was shipwrecked, carefully wrote a journal of every minute particular. This he wound carefully in a cere-cloth, and put into a close barrel, to be thrown into the sea, if any accident had befallen the ship. From the same motive it was, that, before his second voyage, he drew an exact chart of his discoveries, which he put into the hands of his son.

‘ The success of this first attempt determined their Catholic majesties to send him back the following autumn, on the same pursuit, with a squadron of 18 sail. Of the particulars of this voyage we have no account, farther than that the first skirmishes between the Spaniards and Indians happened on this occasion; that the Indian monarch purchased a reconciliation at the price of a golden crown, which he sent to Columbus, with great store of provision for the fleet, and some important intelligence; and that the discoveries now made had confirmed him the more in his opinion of his having found out a new passage to the East Indies, and the means of circumnavigating the globe. With regard to his third voyage we are left no less in the dark as to particulars. This much we are told, that Columbus had now gained some knowledge of the continent; retracted his former mistake, upon hearing that there was a sea on the opposite side of this continent; and now first received the opinion of there being a passage from the north to the south seas, by which it might be possible to sail to the East Indies. This was such a proof of his sagacity and penetration, that it was with good reason the great Mr. Boyle affirmed that we are no less obliged to Columbus for the discoveries made after his death than for those made by him while living, since they all flowed from his principles, being no more than improvements on the plan he had traced out, and in some measure executed with equal prudence, fortitude, and good-fortune. It is likewise remarkable, that some of those discoveries, which are esteemed of much later date, were in fact not unknown to him; particularly the constant motion of the sea from east to west, of which he took notice in his first voyage; thence explaining the difference between the time consumed in going out and returning home.

‘ But this expedition, although in the main successful, did not terminate without misfortunes and fresh matter of grief to Columbus. The gravity of his behaviour, his undaunted per-

severance, his good-fortune, and the strict discipline he maintained during his voyage, created him a number of enemies both in Spain and among his mutinous licentious crew. Appeals from both parties were remitted to court from Hispaniola ; in consequence of which their majesties sent over one Francis Bobadilla to take cognizance of the dispute, and do justice, according as things, upon inquiry, should appear to him. Bobadilla, upon a superficial examination of facts, to gratify a bishop, whose resentment Columbus had incurred, caused the admiral, with his brethren, to be seized, put in irons, and in that condition sent to Spain. In November, A. 1500, they arrived at Cadiz, from whence Columbus made his appeal to their Catholic majesties, who gave immediate orders that he should be released, and expressed the utmost concern for his sufferings. The queen, in particular, who was warm and hearty in her esteem, gave him signal marks of favour and distinction ; but it was some time before he could procure a new governor to be sent to Hispaniola ; which, however, he at length effected.

‘ No sooner had he carried this point than he solicited leave to make a fourth voyage in quest of farther discoveries ; and, after a great many difficulties and obstructions, obtained it. In this voyage it was that he landed upon the continent, lying some days at the Bastimentos, A. 1502. While he was in the full career of farther discoveries, he was forced to alter his course, and steer for Hispaniola, though for what reason we are not told. Probable it is that new quarrels and mutinies had arisen, which rendered it impracticable for him to continue his pursuit. In the year 1504, he returned to Spain, where, upon his arrival, the first news he heard was the death of Isabella the queen, and his firmest friend. So affected was he with this incident, that his health visibly declined, and nothing but his insuperable courage and constancy could enable him to survive a loss which exposed him to all the malice, intrigue, and artifice, of his numerous and powerful enemies. He still, however, persevered in his duty and applications to an ingrateful court, where he was received with a cold respect, very different from what he had been accustomed to from his royal mistress. This, super-added to his former afflictions, sunk so deep in his noble mind, that, after a few months lingering illness, he died equally admired and envied. When the court was informed of his death, then at length they began to perceive the value of a man they had before neglected. His virtues rose upon them in proportion as obloquy and detraction subsided, and they paid those honours to the dead which were refused to the living. Orders were issued that his body might be interred with all imaginable

funeral pomp and magnificence ; but Columbus had before given some directions concerning his funeral, which should perpetuate the memory of his hard treatment, by ordering the irons he had worn to be put in his coffin with him. Thus died the great Columbus, the ornament of his age, and the constant butt of fortune, equal in his private and public virtues, and exceeded by none either in prudence, perseverance, courage, or true greatness of mind. With him died that spirit of rancour and malice, which pursued him invariably through the whole course of his life, and which he resisted with a generous and noble resolution. Of this there cannot be a more striking instance than in the famous story of the egg, which is thus related by the best historians of those times, particularly by Peter Martyr. After the queen's death, when it was observed that the king received Columbus with a reserve and coldness, many of the nobility affected to lessen his merit, by insinuating that he was rather fortunate than prudent, his discoveries being rather the result of accident than of well-concerted measures. These suggestions received strength from the artifice of the Pinçons, whose jealousy made them sworn enemies to the superior merit of Columbus. They arrogated to themselves the discoveries that had been made ; affirming that the pride, stubbornness, and severities, of Columbus, was the cause of all the mutinies and discord on board the fleet. Columbus, one day at a public dinner at court, after bearing a great deal of raillery upon this head, ordered an egg to be brought to him ; and, shewing it to the company, asked if there was any one who would undertake to set it upright upon the lesser end. All agreeing that it was impossible, Columbus very gravely cracked the shell, and, by striking it gently on the table, enlarged the base till it stood upright. Upon which the company fell a-laughing, and cried out that any-body might have done as much. "That I do not doubt," answered Columbus ; " and yet none of you thought of it. Thus it was that I discovered the Indies ; I first conceived the design of steering that course, and now every miserable pilot can find his way thither as well as I. There are many things which appear easy when once performed, which before were thought impracticable. You ought to reflect on the scoffs I sustained before I put my design in execution ; it was then a dream, a chimera, a delusion ; and now it is what any-body might have thought of, and put in practice." When Ferdinand was told this story, he was extremely delighted, commended Columbus highly, and made no difficulty of declaring that he admired the grandeur of that spirit, which at the same time he endeavoured to bring down. Many are the reflections which naturally arise from this incident, which cannot fail of inspiring the

the reader with extraordinary ideas of the understanding, presence of mind, and constancy of Columbus; but they are too obvious to require a recital. Sufficient it is that we observe, that whereas he steadily pursued a settled and regular plan throughout his four voyages, so those who succeeded him were led by no other guide than their avarice, and kept to no other instructions than what they received from the Indians, who to rid themselves of such troublesome guests, were eternally sounding in their ears the riches of distant countries, by which the Spaniards were often seduced to try the truth of their reports. Thus the discoveries of Columbus arose, like those of the great Sir Isaac Newton, from deep reflection, a fine chain of thought, and happy deductions; those of his successors from accidental experiments, hearsay, and other fortuitous causes, in which they can claim no other merit than that of having improved upon the invention and discoveries of another. Out of this number, however, we must exclude Ferdinand Magliana, or Magellan, a Portuguese gentleman of family, spirit, and great skill both in the theory and practice of navigation. As we shall have occasion to mention the discoveries of this experienced seaman in our account of America, we shall here pass over his voyage round the world, and proceed to a recital of that performed by our renowned countryman the brave Sir Francis Drake.'

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**ART. III. *The Chemical Works of Caspar Neumann, M. D. Professor of Chemistry at Berlin. F. R. S. &c. Abridged and methodized. With large Additions, containing the later Discoveries and Improvements made in Chemistry and the Arts depending thereon, by William Lewis, M. B. and Fellow of the Royal Society.***  
4to. Pr. 1l. 1s. Johnston.

AS we have given in this Number a minute, perhaps a tedious account of a valuable work upon the same subject, it will not be expected we should enlarge on the performance before us; especially as the chief merit, both of the author and editor, seems to consist in their industry. They are useful labourers, who collect together materials, to be fashioned into form by the hands of the artist. Boyle could make experiments, and so far he was serviceable to science; but the creative powers of Newton alone could build them into the stupendous monument we behold of his genius, and raise a system of the universal laws of Nature from a chaos of facts. The talents, indeed, required for experiment and deduction, are widely different; and the man possessed of the latter is alone

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the philosopher: the other we would compare to a virtuoso, indefatigably laborious in collecting shells, insects, and the *minutiæ* of nature, which he examines and classes with the most important gravity; while the philosopher, from one general view, finds cause sufficient to admire the wisdom and goodness of the great Author of Nature; the only inference that can be deduced after centuries of study.

Doctor Neumann, we are told in the preface, was early received into the favour of his Prussian majesty, and sent by the royal bounty to examine the state of chemistry in all the different kingdoms of Europe. On his return to Berlin, he was promoted to a professorship in the academy, and appointed to superintend the king's laboratory. Yet, after all these distinctions paid him by that illustrious patron of merit, we can perceive nothing very exalted in the talents of the Doctor, who seems possessed of that sort of genius perfectly fitted to fill the professorial chair in a German university. He has here bequeathed to the publick such proofs of industry as would be astonishing, were they not almost equalled in this particular by his English annotator. A pair of brothers, *craffo sub aere nati*, born to jogg on in the same dull tract of beaten knowledge. Never, sure, were text and comment better fitted: it is page about, and I speak next. No part of their subject escapes them: the one cuts down, and the other gleans after him. In a word, so comprehensive have they made this volume between them, that it includes not only the principles of chemistry, but may supply the want of a dispensatory, a *materia medica*, a botanical synopsis, or a system of natural philosophy. As it would be vain to attempt an enumeration of particulars, we must content ourselves with presenting our fair readers with the following history of tea, which we hope will prove an agreeable recess, over that elegant tipple, from the more weighty labours of adjusting fashions, and canvassing reputations.

• The Chinese plant whole fields with tea; the Japanese only the borders of fields fronting the south. From six to a dozen of the berries are planted together (as they are very apt to fail) and covered with dung and earth: it is said, that they are three years in coming up, and that they are carefully covered in the winter with straw. After a certain number of years, which Kæmpfer limits between seven and ten, appear the admired leaves: after these have been gathered, the plant is either cut down, and new shoots expected from the root, or extirpated and renewed from seed. As the berries are extremely apt to spoil, insomuch as to require being planted quite fresh in their native

native climate, and as the shrub does not bear being removed entire, there are little hopes of our being ever able to introduce it into Europe: nor would it, probably, in these colder climates, prove equal in quality to the Chinese, since even in China and Japan it proves greatly different in different provinces.

‘ If the winter does not prove very severe, the leaves come forth in February, and about the end of this month, or the beginning of next, the first collection is made. These early tender leaves are the true Imperial, called also improperly *bloom tea*; but they cannot be the sort to which the Dutch give that name, as being sold upon the spot, to the princes of the country, for vastly more than the common *bloom tea* is sold for in Europe. About the end of March, or the beginning of April, the second and most considerable crop is gathered: a large linen-cloth is stretched over the bush, to defend from the sun not only the gatherers, but the leaves themselves, lest they should dry too fast, and lose their flavour. The leaves are picked one by one, so curiously, that the most industrious can scarcely collect four pounds in a day. They are commonly divided into four sortments; of which the smaller upper ones are the best, the larger lower ones the worst, and the intermediate of a middling goodness. The third collection is in the end of April or beginning of May: this likewise affords different sorts, which are those mostly brought into Europe: the very best sort which we meet with here, called *imperial tea*, is but the lower leaves of the second crop. About the end of May, all the leaves on the plant are gathered promiscuously, without sorting, and sold about the streets to the poorer people; these being the worst of all, and unfit for being cured in the Chinese manner.

‘ The Japanese, who swallow their tea in substance along with its infusion, dry it hastily in iron pans over the fire, and grind it into powder. The Chinese, on the other hand, are very curious of preserving the leaves entire, and roll them up that they may be less apt to break in carriage. So soon as gathered, they are brought into an apartment furnished with a number of little furnaces, each of which is covered with a smooth iron plate. The leaves are spread upon the plates, and kept rolling with the hands, in one direction, till they become moderately dry, and begin to curl up about the edges, when they are immediately swept off upon tables covered with smooth close mats, on which one person continues to roll them over and over, whilst another fans them, that they may cool hastily, and retain the curl. This process is repeated two or three times

times, or oftener, according as the leaves are disposed to unbend upon standing. If exsiccated without artificial heat, or by a very soft one, they rarely take the curl, and never hold it.

‘ The Japan tea has been observed to be of a clearer green colour than the Chinese, and to have its leaves smaller; but which of the two is the best has not hitherto been determined, some preferring the one, and others the other: this controversy does but little concern us, the Chinese being the only one brought into Europe. In China, tea is divided into a great number of different sortments: there are sixteen or twenty of the green leaves, from the difference in the collection only; and these are further multiplied, when the leaves are dry, by picking out such as have miscarried in the preparation. Among us, there are three principal kinds of green, and five of Bohea: from what province they are brought, of what crop they are the produce, and to which of the Chinese sorts they belong, is unknown: they have all names, but these are merely arbitrary, and serve only for the conveniency of the dealer. The best of the green teas is called Bing, Imperial, and Bloom-tea, *Thea imperialis folio amplio laxo* of Dale: the second best, *Hysson*, *Thea viridis optima folio oblongo Dal*: the third or worst, *Singlo*, *Thea viridis folio minore Dal*. Of bohea (*Thea fusca folio ad nigredinem vergente*) the sorts are, Ordinary, Pecco, Congo, Camho, and Souchong; of which the first is the worst, and the last the best.

‘ The Chinese are extremely curious and cleanly in every branch of the tea manufacture. They gather the leaves, as I have been well assured, with gloves made of a thin kind of leather. The workmen employed in the curation are restrained, for a fortnight before, from flatulent foods, and whatever might endanger communicating any ill flavour. The tea, when cured, is packed up in large vessels made of a mixture of lead and tin called calin, or in wooden chests lined with this composition, or in cannisters of tinned plates soldered with the same, so tight, that they may be kept occasionally under water.

‘ The Oriental tea, as we have already seen, is of two kinds, green and bohea. The first is not only externally green, but likewise imparts the same colour to water; the fresher the tea, the greener is the infusion; its prevailing smell is generally that of violets or new hay: bohea, on the other hand, is externally of a blackish brown colour, gives a brownish tincture

to

to water, and smells of roses. Green tea should be chosen fresh, of a fine colour, not inclining to a yellowish or brownish, which are marks of too great age, well rolled, consisting of entire leaves, thoroughly dry, so as to be friable betwixt the fingers, of a bitterish subastringent not ungrateful taste, and a pleasant light smell. When either the violet or hay-smell are very strong, we may suspect them to be introduced by art, the leaves having but little from nature: the first is communicated by putting into the canisters a little Florence orris-root; the latter, by placing the tea for a few days, wrapt in papers, among new made hay; this leaf being remarkably susceptible of any kind of flavour. There are other abuses common among the Dutch; as mixing, with the tea, leaves of European growth and manufacture; and introducing into the old decayed green, a fresh tincture.

‘ The preparation and use of tea as a dietetic liquor, are in general well known. With regard to its medical effects, some have excessively extolled, and others as extravagantly condemned it. The most virulent of its antagonists is Simon Paulli, who seizes every opportunity of expressing his dislike to it: his royal master, the king of Denmark, who had found great benefit from tea, he vehemently dissuaded from continuing its use, affirming it to be extremely unwholesome; but all he gained from his majesty was this equivocal answer, *Credo TE non esse sanum.*

‘ Tea is in many cases a very useful liquor; a grateful diluent in health, and a salutary drink in sickness: it attenuates viscid juices, promotes the natural excretions, excites appetite, and proves serviceable particularly in fevers, in immoderate sleepiness, after a debauch, and in head-achs arising from that cause: no other plant is known, whose infusion passes off more freely by the emunctories of the body, or more speedily excites the spirits. It is not however without its inconveniences: in habitual colics it is found to do harm, and in urinary obstructions it should be sparingly drank: its immoderate use is productive of cacoehymic, cachectic, chlorotic disorders, and weakens the tone of the stomach and nervous system. It is said, when new, to be narcotic, and to disorder the senses; but to lose this quality, in great part by the exsiccation, and totally by being kept for a year: in the tea countries, it is a principal caution to abstain from it till this period, but in Europe there is no danger of its being used too new.

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Some ascribe the good or ill effects observed from the use of tea wholly to the leaves, and others to the water. The simple element has undoubtedly a considerable share in both: it is not, as some have supposed, the virtue of the tea-leaf, but the warm aqueous liquor, with the climate and diet, that preserves the inhabitants of China and Japan from calculous and gouty disorders.—But on the other hand, that the herb communicates also some peculiar qualities to the liquor, is equally certain: in weak stomachs, a moderately strong infusion of tea, without sugar, generally provokes a puke. An infusion of two or three drams of bohea in two ounces of water, is a common emetic among the Chinese; and the green is sometimes employed in the like intention among ourselves.

It now remains to examine the physico-chemical structure of tea. Authors in general make a saline substance its prevailing principle: one stands up for a volatile, another for a fixed salt; one for an alkaline, another for an acid, and another for an oily salt; one will have it smooth, another pointed and rough; one nitrous, and another sulphureous. But all these salts are creatures of imagination, experiment discovering nothing of them. The experimental analysis of tea turned out as follows:

An ounce of fine green tea, digested with fresh parcels of water, yielded four drams two scruples of gummy extract; and afterwards, with spirit, only one scruple of resinous extract; three drams remaining undissolved. On inverting the order of applying the respective menstrua, an ounce gave four drams and a half of spirituous, and afterwards four scruples of watery extract; the residuum weighing three drams ten grains. The green colour resides wholly, and the astringency chiefly, in the resinous part; the resinous extract, made by applying spirit at first, being much stronger and more astringent, and at the same time more ungrateful, than the gummy extract prepared by applying water at first. In distillation, pure spirit brought over nothing from the tea: water elevated all its flavour.

An ounce of bohea yielded with water five drams of gummy, and afterwards with spirit one scruple of resinous extract; two drams and a half of indissoluble matter being left: another ounce, treated first with spirit, gave three drams and a scruple of resinous, and afterwards five scruples of gummy extract; the residuum amounting to three drams. Though the watery tinctures of bohea are different in colour from those of the green,  
the

the spirituous are nearly of the same green colour. The distilled waters also are in flavour much alike, and the distilled spirits equally void of flavour. But the first resinous extract of bohea is considerably less ungrateful than that of the other; and the resin extracted after water, more so.

‘ A spirituous extract made from either kind of tea, possesses the whole of its taste and smell: but in the watery extract, prepared in the common manner, all the fine flavour of the leaf is lost. Nevertheless, if the inspissation of the watery infusion be performed without communication with the air, and in the gentle heat of a water-bath, the extract will turn out, next to the infusion, one of the most elegant preparations. Such an extract, curiously prepared, may be of use to travellers; the bulk of a pea, dissolved in water, forming an extemporaneous tea, without any apparatus. According to some, the Indians themselves have a preparation of this kind, for making tea upon a journey.

‘ A solution of vitriol of iron dropt, in small quantity, into an infusion of tea, changes its colour to a muddy violet: a larger quantity turns it to an inky blackness; a proof that tea possesses an astringent quality. On standing for some time, a precipitate falls: it is pretty singular, that after the precipitation, the liquor appears greenish. Infusions of tea, like those of other vegetables, are made deeper coloured by alcalies, particularly by those of the fixed kind; and paler by acids, both of the mineral and vegetable kingdom.’

To conclude, though we approve not of the method of this publication, we must acknowledge, that the works of Dr. Neumann are by no means destitute of merit. Both he and his editor seem to have read many books upon the subject, and to have had long experience in the laboratory. They abound with useful practical remarks, which will probably turn out to the advantage of a reader endowed with patience sufficient to labour for them in the mine. It was, however, we must say, the business of Neumann’s abridger and methodizer to have applied his chemical art in separating the true gold from the surrounding rubbish, instead of smothering the professor with so enormous a load of annotations.

**ART. IV. The Histories of some of the Penitents in the Magdalen-House, as supposed to be related by themselves. In two Volumes. 12mo. Pr. 6s. Rivington and Dodoley.**

EVERY effort, evidently calculated either for the public good in general, or for the promotion of any particular charity, deserves the countenance and encouragement of the community, even though that effort should be but weakly exerted, from want of information or capacity. But a laudable endeavour, executed with spirit and ability, is intitled to the peculiar approbation of the public. In this point of view we consider the performance now before us. The design of it is to caution the weak and the unwary against the temptations of vice; to snatch, as it were, beauty, youth, and inexperience from the brink of guilty pleasure; to confirm those that waver; to encourage and animate the innocent; to awaken those that are fallen, to a due sense of their deplorable state; and point out to those who are truly penitent a safe harbour, where they may in peace implore the mercy of heaven, and reconcile themselves to virtue, secure from all the storms of infamy and indigence.

The preface may be termed a very sensible and pious sermon, explaining the nature of the work, directing a proper application of the incidents related in it, and defending the institution of that excellent charity, the Magdalen-house, from the cavils of malice and the misapprehension of ignorance.

The stories which compose these volumes, whether invented for the purpose, or only embellished by the pen of the writer, are certainly related with spirit, and even with elegance, fraught with affecting circumstances, enriched with many pertinent observations on life, and interspersed with a variety of moral reflections, which we hope will have a due effect upon the gay, and giddy reader. But, while we thus do justice to our author's piety and good sense, we must also, in duty to the public, acknowledge, that there is in these histories a great want of imagination, nature, and character. The adventures of these penitents are not enough diversified to amuse the fancy: the difference in their characters, if there is any difference at all, is but faintly marked; and the book is almost quite destitute of that *naïveté*, simplicity, or nature, which, when present, never fails to act as a charm in captivating the attention. Here is no distinction in the powers of narrating: the young, the old, the grave, the gay, the gentlewoman, and the villager, all tell their

different stories in the same strain, and moralize in the same manner. In a word, we drop the penitent and her character, and find the same historian in every paragraph.

Emily, the first person who appears upon the stage to relate her own story, was the daughter of a poor clergyman, who, on the death of her parents, was admitted into the service of lady Markland at the age of fourteen, after having been fortified with good advice by an elder sister, who exercised the profession of a milliner. The affections of poor Emily are engaged by her lady's son, Mr. Markland, a youth of uncommon accomplishments, who, after a great struggle, triumphs over her virtue, and takes her into keeping.—She meets by accident with her sister, who had been lately married to a citizen; and here a tender scene is acted. Emily being big with child, her situation is immediately perceived by the sister, and an affecting dialogue ensues. Markland cools in his love, and sets out on his travels, leaving the unfortunate Emily with her infant destitute of support. She converts her effects into money, and hires a small shop; where, in the midst of her hopes of being able to maintain herself and child by her œconomy and industry, she is arrested by her former landlord, on account of the lodging, for which Markland had never payed. On the verge of being dragged to prison, she is relieved by an old gentlewoman, who carries her and the child home to her house, and proves to be a bawd of the most infernal order. Finding her not only reluctant, but obstinately bent against her purpose, this emissary of the devil puts in practice every thing, which the most diabolical artifice could suggest, to force her into a compliance. She was imprisoned, soothed, flattered, importuned, threatened, starved, and well nigh murdered; and at length given to understand, that her child would be torn from her, and turned upon the parish. This was an argument she could not resist: she suffered herself to be led like a victim to the guilty scene; and had continued under great horrors in this course of life, about a month, when the bawd died, and she, with her sisters in iniquity, were dismissed without friends, money, or effects. She endeavoured to procure employment as a needle-woman, or washer-woman; but nobody would trust a stranger. She attempted to go into service; but no person would admit her without a recommendation. She applied to her sister, and was forbid the house by the husband: she turned beggar, with little or no success; and, finally, was compelled by famine to become street-walker: but had not long practised this occupation, when she by accident heard of the Asylum for

penitent prostitutes, applied for admission, and was with her infant received.

The next penitent who entertains the reader, is the daughter of a wealthy tradesman in a country town, not far from one of the universities. She was a young, thoughtless, giddy coquette, who piqued herself upon being the greatest beauty of the place, and was always surrounded by a number of admirers, who came thither from *alma mater* to dangle after this country toast. One of these, called Monkerton, a young man of an opulent fortune, made an impression upon her heart, and decoyed her to London, on pretence of marrying her privately: they were accordingly buckled at the Fleet, and lived privately as man and wife, until he should be of age, and get full possession of his fortune, when he promised he would declare his marriage. After the expiration of the time, he puts off the performance of his promise under divers pretences, until at length she discovers, by accident, that he had deceived her.—An explanation ensues, in which he tells her, that as the marriage was contracted in his minority, it would not hold in law; and that, if she would live with him on the footing of his mistress, she should have no reason to complain. She storms at this proposal: he retires; and sends a servant to her with the *Marriage-Act*, which she peruses, and finds herself completely miserable. She then writes to her father an account of the villany which had been practised upon her, and sues for his forgiveness, which is refused. Monkerton goes abroad, after having offered to supply her with the means of subsisting; an offer which she rejects with disdain. In this uncomfortable situation she is visited by one Mr. Senwill, a friend of Monkerton, and a youth of a very amiable character, who presents himself as a lover, and is heard without reluctance. She finds him accomplished, humane, and generous; conceives a tenderness for him, and they live together in great harmony, until their happiness is invaded by a scheme of marriage, proposed by his father, between him and a young lady of great fortune. The pressing commands of a parent, whom he tenderly loved, and the affecting situation of the young lady, who pined with a passion for him, joined to his connexions with his mistress, whom he adored, rendered him extremely miserable. Our penitent, on this occasion, made an effort of generosity, and insisted upon his compliance with his father's request, though by that compliance he was torn from her arms for ever. He importuned her to accept of a settlement, which she would not receive. After his marriage, however, he sent a particular friend to her with his picture, and a pocket-book, containing bank-notes to the amount

amount of 600*l.* This sum enabled her to put in execution a design she had formed of retiring to the country, and living in obscurity: but her intention was frustrated by the dishonesty of her maid, who robbed her of the pocket-book, and all her other most valuable effects. She bore this grievous loss with temper; and, far from having recourse again to the generosity of Mr. Senwill, upon which she might have depended, she retired from the world, by soliciting and obtaining admittance in the Magdalen-house.

The third person of the sisterhood, who steps forth upon the theatre of narration, is a comely, young, country girl; in effect a foundling, called Fanny, who comes to London in quest of her mother, and falls into the hands of a bawd, in whose house she is debauched in the usual form. Mr. Mastin delivers her from this house, and visits her in a private lodging, until he is cloyed with possession: then recommends her as a servant to his sister, Mrs. Lafew, a lady of great personal accomplishments and the most sublime virtue. Poor Fanny falls in love with her master, who takes the advantage of his conquest, and maintains her in a secret retreat, where she is delivered of a child. Here, while he was absent in the country, she is seized with a fever, and becomes delirious. Mrs. Lafew gets intimation of her condition, and uses her utmost endeavours for her recovery. Fanny's delirium vanishes, and she finds Mrs. Lafew sitting at her bedside. That lady, instead of reproaching, comforts and cheers her with the most heroic humanity. The girl is extremely affected by her behaviour, makes a full confession of the criminal commerce in which she had lived with her husband; and is, by the piety and exhortation of her benefactress, brought to a due sense of her guilt. She renounces all further correspondence with her keeper, and, her lady promising to take care of the child, she retires to the house of penitent prostitutes. There she is visited by Mrs. Lafew, who makes her happy by telling her, that the step she has taken is greatly approved by her husband, who has recalled his affections to the proper object; and that Fanny's boy is caressed by both, and treated in all respects as the other legitimate children.

There is more nature and character in this than in any other story of the book, not without some native and successful strokes of humour. There is an amiable simplicity and generous warmth in Fanny's character; and that of Mrs. Lafew is highly finished.

The fourth and last penitent, who recounts her story, is a gentlewoman turned of thirty, who still exhibited the faded remains of a fine person. She had fallen a sacrifice to a mercenary marriage, imposed upon her by her parents, and attended with every species of matrimonial misery. While her heart beat high with a passion for a youth called captain Turnham, born and bred in her own neighbourhood, she was compelled to give her hand and happiness to one Mr. Merton, a rich man; but an old decayed rake, of a most brutal disposition. After she had for some time endured all the pangs of domestic trouble, her husband accompanies her to Tunbridge, where she meets by accident with captain Turnham, for whom her antient tenderness revives, and with whom she engages in a criminal commerce. She is discovered coming out of his lodgings by her own house-keeper, an old, wicked, envious harridan, who had formerly served her master in the capacity of concubine, and now assisted him as a fiend in tormenting his lady. The unfortunate Mrs. Merton is, without further process, confined to a cold damp garret, without bed or furniture, where she is insulted by this house-keeper, and almost famished to death. At length captain Turnham delivers her by means of a ladder, and she escapes to London, where she is soon after delivered of a boy, the fruit of her amour with this officer. He being quartered at Reading, the two lovers meet often half way; and in one of these excursions she is discovered by Merton, who seizes her on her return in the stage-coach, and sends her, more dead than alive, under the conduct of her old Duen-na, to a ruinous house, belonging to him, in a remote country, that she may be strictly confined, until he can sue out a divorce. From hence, however, she finds means to accomplish her escape; and, as she makes no opposition, Mr. Merton obtains what he desired. Then, being left at liberty, she lives with captain Turnham without restraint, and increases his family with two more children. The regiment being ordered to Gibraltar, she accompanies him thither, where he dies, leaving her in a forlorn situation with three helpless babes. The captain of a ship of war not only offers her a passage to England, but makes proposals of a settlement, to which she gladly agrees: but, in the voyage, this generous benefactor is slain, during an engagement with the enemy; and she finds herself in London, with her children, in imminent danger of starving, having neither friends nor acquaintance to whom she could apply; for her father had renounced her in the beginning of her commerce with Turnham. In a word, she is driven, by dire necessity, into the paths of prostitution, which she treads with unspeakable grief and reluctance, until she is awakened to a due sense

of her guilt by the death of her eldest boy, whose resignation and last words are amazingly exemplary and edifying. Thus aroused, she has recourse to the directors of the Magdalene-house, who charitably admit herself, and take care of her children.

In this last story there is a great variety of fortune, and some of the incidents are pathetic; but the manner of the lady's conversion is altogether out of nature. The author seems to have forgot the precept of Horace;

*Nec Deus interficit, nisi dignus vindice nodus:*

For he has metamorphosed a child into a saint and confessor, in order to make a proselyte of the mother:

*Quodcunque offendes mihi, sic, incredulus odi.*

We do not at all doubt but this book may be of great service to unexperienced innocence, where there is really principle and sentiment at bottom; and therefore we recommend it to the perusal of all young females, of what rank and circumstances soever they may be. We cannot help observing, however, that there are very few prostitutes who have either sense, sentiment, or reflection; and this deplorable insensibility is generally owing to an original want of education, and a shameful neglect of the duties of religion, for which the vulgar of this country are notorious. Most of the courtesans about London have been serving maids in lodging-houses, brought originally from work-houses or beggary, either foundlings of a parish, or children of the lowest class of labourers in the country, who have imbibed no tincture of letters or religion; have seen no example of order or decorum; but been trained up in all the licentious grossness of vulgar indigence. These creatures have been generally deflowered by their own companions, in their first approaches to womanhood; and when they are admitted as servants in the sequel, have no objection at all to the proposal of the first man that offers; whether it be John the footman, whose person is liked, or his master, whose money is an irresistible temptation. The love of finery and pleasure, inherent in every female breast, the intervention of pregnancy, or the accident of disease, drives these wretches from service into a course of prostitution for life, attended with such misery as must be altogether intolerable to any being, who has the least remains of reason and reflection. Instinct, therefore, impels them to repeated intoxication, as a relief from the horrors of thinking, and they soon degenerate

into the most brutal insensibility. Such is the common run of those prostitutes who flutter about in brothels, or prowl along the streets for prey; whose bodies are the haunts of the most loathsome disease; whose minds are the repositories of the most abandoned principles; and whose conversation is nothing but a vile repetition of vulgar obscenity, and shocking execration. Some few there are, of whom it may be said with the poet,

*Ex meliore luto finxit præcordia Titan.*

Unhappy young women, who have been defrauded of their virtue by the artifices and perfidy of the other sex; who have perhaps fallen a prey to the sensibility and tenderness of their own hearts; who prosecute the ways of vice with horror and reluctance; perceive and feel all the infamy and wretchedness of their estate; and long for nothing so much as an opportunity of repentance and reformation: such are the characters here introduced, and so far the performance is executed with propriety. To real objects like these, a comfortable asylum is opened at the Magdalén-house for penitent prostitutes, one of the most useful and godlike institutions that ever did honour to human charity.

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ART. V. *A Tour through Spain and Portugal, &c. Giving an Account of the most remarkable Places and Curiosities in these Kingdoms. Particularly a Description of the Bull-Feast; the remarkable Relicks in Oviedo; the miraculous Cock and Hen at Santo Domingo; likewise the Palace of the Escorial; an Account of the Lovers Rock; the Miracles at Puche de Santa Maria; the Fountain of Health at Trayguera; a moveable Rock near Montesa; the Convent and Mountain of Monserrate; and a Description of the grand Aqueduct at Lisbon. Also the Names of all the Cities, Towns, Villages, &c. as they stand on the Roads, with their exact Distances, after a new and accurate Method. Together with two Alphabetical Tables to the Whole. By Udal ap Rhys. 8vo. Pr. 4s. Lownds.*

**W**HETHER any such person as Udal ap Rhys ever existed, or the name is no more than an anagrammatical conceit, we shall not pretend to determine: but we wish the author had been pleased to inform the public, whether he made this tour upon terra firma, or on paper only; and if the last, who were his guides; for it is a sort of hardship on the reader, to take the whole upon trust, considering the obscurity, and even doubtful existence of this traveller. We are the more exposed to imposition in this history, as it treats of a kingdom and country which have been little visited by strangers, and very imperfectly described by writers: so that, in perusing this tour, we have hardly any authentic travels or histories of Spain, to which

we can refer for the truth of our author's observations. We can plainly perceive, however, that great part of the performance is borrowed, and the account of the bull-feast almost literally copied from a book, well known to the public, under the title of, *The ingenious and diverting Letters of the Lady's Travels into Spain, &c.* and, indeed, we know no letters of this kind more ingenious and diverting, whether we consider the solid matter with which they abound, or the agreeable manner in which it is communicated. The reader will be surprised when we affirm, that this little book, which children read for their amusement, contains the best, and almost only materials, now extant, for the history of the first part of the reign of Charles II. with whom the Spanish branch of the Austrian family expired. We are, in the Lady's Travels, not only regaled with a succinct and agreeable description of different places, interspersed with interesting incidents that happened to the writer; but we are also informed of many particulars of the Spanish constitution, the manners, customs, and genius of that people; and made acquainted with the characters of the king, queen, queen-mother, and the principal personages, of both sexes, that composed the court and ministry at that juncture.

Mr. ap Rhys is not nearly so entertaining as his female predecessor; for though he has made very free with her in other respects, he has left her humour and agreeable vivacity altogether untouched. It is indeed a very dry composition, which, however, may serve as a little geographical account of the kingdom, though immethodical and imperfect. The reader will perhaps be pleased to see the following account of the reliks deposited at Oviedo:

‘ This city is the capital of the Asturias, and abounds in venerable reliks; for the Christians under king Roderic receiving a total overthrow by the Moors, in the most southern parts of Spain, in the year 714. they retired (as it were from a general inundation) towards the North, and carried all their most valuable reliks with them, into these almost inaccessible mountains; which was undoubtedly the occasion of this city's being blessed with so great a treasure; some of the rarest and most efficacious of which are as follows: viz. a miraculous chest made by the apostles of incorruptible wood, nothing inferior to the *casa santa* of Loreto, either in its celestial virtues or its travels; for this chest travelled from Jerusalem to Africa; from thence to Carthagena, Sevilla, and Toledo; and from Toledo it came to Oviedo, where it now remains. When it was first opened in the presence of the prelate and the chief of the clergy,

gy, they found in it a great many small chests of gold, silver, and ivory, in which were several sacred writings, which contained many wonderful secrets. They shew you also, the linen, the tunic, and the clothes in which the little Jesus was wrapped when he lay in the manger. They have a piece also of the sacramental bread, which he brake, blessed, and distributed to his apostles, at his last supper ; and a morsel likewise, of that with which he fed the five thousand in the Wilderness ; with some of the very manna which was so miraculously provided for the Israelites in the wilderness. There is also, some of the virgin-mother of God's milk, hair, and garments, with the chesuble which she gave to St. Illefonso, archbishop of Toledo about the year 680. There is also the prophet Elias's cloak, St. Peter's shoe, and St. John's forehead ; the fingers of the innocents slaughtered by Herod, and some of the bones of Hananiah, Azariah, and Mishael, who were cast by Nebuchadnezzar into the fiery furnace. You may see there also some of Mary Magdalene's hair, with which she wiped the feet of our Lord. They shew you also a piece of the broiled fish and honey-comb, which the disciples presented to our Lord, after his resurrection ; and one of the six water-pots in which our Saviour converted the water into wine. I shall close this stupendous collection of sacred relics, with a golden cross, which was made by angels, in the figure and habit of goldsmiths, and the rod with which Moses divided the Red Sea. Here is an university, the colleges of which are an ornament to the place ; and the country about it is remarkable for its excellent breed of horses. The antient names of this city were Asturum Lucus, and Brigacium ; and it is now called Oviedo, from its lying between the rivers Ove and Deva.'

The most magnificent and expensive house or palace in Europe, is generally allowed to be in Spain, known by the name of the *Escurial* ; and is, indeed, a stupendous work, of which our author has given a pretty minute detail, which we would willingly insert for the reader's entertainment, but the length of it will not permit us to give him that satisfaction. We shall, however, endeavour to communicate some idea of it, in a few detached paragraphs :

‘ The *Escurial* is not only the grandest and most magnificent structure in Spain, but may stand in competition at least, if it be not superior, to any in Europe : for, that art might do her utmost, three or four of her monarchs have successively supplied her with immense treasures, in order to enrich and complete a structure suitable to the grandeur of the Spanish monarchy, which

the Spaniards say, is eminently distinguished both by art and nature in the Escurial and Aranjuez ; and though in reality they are above description, yet I shall endeavour to give you as just an idea of them, as such expression as I am master of, is capable of conveying.

‘ The Escurial, or Escorial, as the Spaniards writes it, takes its name from a little village near it. This vast pile was begun by Philip the second in the year 1563. was twenty-two years in finishing, and cost twenty-five millions of ducats to complete it. It was built in memory of a victory which he obtained over the French, upon St. Laurence’s day, 1557, near St. Quintin. It is said, that, upon that very day, he made two solemn vows ; the one of which was, that he would never expose his person in war ; and the other was, that if God would grant him a victory, he would erect a most stupendous monument in memory of it ; and, it must be acknowledged, that he kept them both exceeding strictly. And the victory being obtained upon St. Laurence’s day, this monument of it was dedicated to him, and called San Lorenzo de el Escorial.

‘ The building is of a mixed kind, and so contrived, that the inhabitants are as well provided with necessaries, as they could have been in the greatest city. It consists of a royal palace, a church, a convent, a college, and a library. There are also convenient places for all sorts of mechanics to work in for the service of the place, and a sufficient number of lodging-rooms for their domestics, and strangers. There are fine walks shaded by double rows of trees, a vast park, and extensive gardens, properly supplied with fountains.

‘ The soil where this vast fabric stands is dry and barren, and contiguous to very high and abrupt mountains, so that nothing will grow there without expence, care, and culture ; but the prospect from it is very beautiful, and extends quite to Madrid. This situation was made choice of for the convenience of having their building-stone near at hand. It is of a greyish cast, extremely hard, bears the weather, and never changes its colour ; and they went no farther for it than to the neighbouring mountains.

‘ The whole country round about has been cantoned out and appropriated to the service and entertainment of this palace. Some of it is thrown into a park of seven leagues in circumference ; in other parts they confine a great variety of savage beasts. Some parts of it are enriched with plantations of the most

most beautiful trees that can be procured, even from the most distant regions ; while others are covered with such as produce the greatest plenty of rare and delicious fruits : and I shall close this short epitome of its singularities by saying, that they have been at infinite trouble and expence too, in searching every corner of the world for the finest and most odoriferous flowers, which both enamel and embalm one chosen spot.

‘ This vast building consists of twenty-two courts, seventeen cloisters, and a prodigious number of halls, salons, and other apartments. And, to descend to more minute particulars, it has eleven thousand windows, and fourteen thousand doors ; and the keys belonging to them weigh seven hundred pounds.

‘ In the front of the church there is a grand approach of six or seven steps that extend the whole breadth of the court, and leads you to a noble landing-place, upon which the portail is erected.

‘ It is supported by eight pillars of the Doric order, six of which are in front, and one on each side. These columns, with their entablature, rise as high as the roof of the rest of the buildings in the court. Upon the columns before-mentioned there are six statues, each of which is eighteen feet high, four of which are in front and one on each side. They are all of white marble, and represent six kings of Israel, of which the two that stand in the middle, are David and Solomon, whose characters are supposed to have the nearest similitude to those of Charles the fifth, and Philip the second ; the one for the field, and the other for the cabinet. The others are Ezekias, Josias, Josaphat, and Manasse, four kings of Judah ; the three first of which were remarkable for their piety, and the last for his repentance and conversion. Each of these kings has a crown of brass, double-gilt, upon his head, of an hundred weight, and a gilt sceptre in his hand that weighs fifty pounds.

‘ This beautiful portail is crowned with a pediment, under which there is a window twenty feet high, which is ornamented with cross bars, so as to represent a gridiron, which emblem of the saint is very frequently repeated in that vast pile.

‘ The inside of the church is large and beautiful, and in the taste of St. Peter’s at Rome. The dome is a fine piece of the Doric order : it is extremely well lighted, and the cupola and the ceilings in the isles are richly gilt ; and the pavement is black and white marble. The sacred vestments of the priests are embroidered with pearls, and other jewels, and the vases and

and chalices are of precious stones. The lamps and candlesticks are most of them silver, and the rest are of pure gold.

‘ There are forty chapels, and as many altars, with variety of the richest vestments, to serve them all. The principal chapel, where the great altar is placed, takes up the whole breadth of the great nave, and is all of jasper, from the bottom to the top. On each side there are two small oratories, near which, on the gospel side, there are five statues in brass gilt, and bigger than the life. The first of which is the emperor Charles the fifth, bare-headed, and upon his knees, with his sword by his side, and dressed in his imperial robes, upon which is represented the eagle with two heads ; the material of which is jasper, being that which approaches nearest to the colour of the bird. The empress Donna Isabel, his consort, is placed upon his side, though not quite in the front line ; and the empress Donna Maria his daughter is behind him, with the imperial eagle embossed upon her robes. And next in order are the queens of France and Hungary, the emperor’s sisters.

‘ On the side of the epistle also you see Philip the second in armour, and in his robes, which are distinguished by his shield, with the royal arms, artfully composed of various precious stones. He also is upon his knees, with his head bare, and his hands lifted up, as in the act of prayer. On his side is Donna Anna his fourth queen, and behind him, is Donna Isabel his third : and on her right hand is Donna Maria ; and Don Carlos behind them all. These also are bigger than the life, and in brass gilt, and are by the hand of Pompeyo Leoni, the greatest artist of that age. The holy waterpots are of precious stones, as big as a bowl, and are set in gold. At the bottom of the steps of the altar there are twenty-four candlesticks of massy silver, each of which is above six feet high ; they are equally divided, twelve being placed on each side of the altar. You ascend to it by sixteen steps of red jasper, which extend from one side of the chapel to the other.

‘ Behind the altar there is a piece of porphyry, fixed in the wall, which is so large, and so highly polished, that it reflects the whole church like a looking-glass.

‘ The tabernacle is placed upon the pedestal of the altar. It is of porphyry, and in the form of a dome ; with a little tower upon it, which is supported by eight columns of diasper, which were so excessive hard, that they were worked with the point of a diamond. And the intercolumniations are filled with small statues.

statues. This tabernacle is sixteen feet high, and seven and a half in diameter ; and on the top of it there is a topaz as big as one's fist. Within this tabernacle there is another, called the Custodia, which is only four feet high, and three feet in diameter. The top of this is adorned with a large emerald ; opposite to which, on the inside, there is a topaz of an uncommon size.

‘ The vase, in which the sacrament is kept, is of agate, with a cover of the same ; the top of which is enriched with an extreme fine sapphire ; and the foot is of solid gold enamelled : and this is placed in the centre of the Custodia. In short, here are all the beauties of art, accompanied with such a profusion of the richest productions of nature, that the effulgence from such a diversity of precious stones is quite astonishing.

‘ The jambs of the doors, through which you pass to the back part of the altar, are inlaid with jasper and agate.

‘ Nor have these religious monarchs been less assiduous in amassing of sacred relics, and other treasures of devotion, to enrich and sanctify this royal monument of their piety : an abstract of which is as follows ; viz. Seven bodies entire ; one hundred and seven entire heads ; one hundred and seventy arms and legs ; three hundred and forty-six veins ; fourteen hundred lesser pieces, as fingers, teeth, and toes, &c, and about fifteen hundred less than these. And these are all kept in fine chests, one of which alone may vie with the whole treasure of St. Mark.’

We cannot pretend to give the description of the palace, and many other curiosities, or particularize the capital pictures with which it is adorned. This task alone requires a whole volume, and indeed there is one written expressly on the subject, in the Spanish language, by the celebrated virtuoso Palamino Velasco, and Francisco de los Santos.

The latter part of the work treats of Portugal, and necessarily includes a short and unfinished description of Lisbon, such as it stood before the fatal day on which the earthquake laid it in ruins.

**ART. VI. An Account of the Expedition to the West Indies, against Martinico, Guadelupe, and other the Leward Islands, subject to the French King, 1759. By Richard Gardiner, Esq; Captain of Marines on board his Majesty's Ship Rippon, on the Expedition. 4to. Pr. 2s. 6d. Stuart.**

**I**F this performance was not a little too much embroidered with quotations from the classics, and, in some places, a florid luxuriancy of style, we should not fear to pronounce it one of the best pieces of this kind which have appeared since the beginning of the last Spanish war. It is indeed written with such spirit, elegance, and precision, as would have done honour to the pen of a Folard, or a Feuquieres; and we hope the author's ingenuity will be thrown into the scale, with his other military qualifications, when it comes to his turn to be promoted in the service. His dedication to Earl Temple is short, modest, and genteel. His preface is a severe satire upon a set of infamous wretches settled in our islands, who carry on a clandestine traffick with the enemies of their country, by the medium of St. Eustatia, from which the French of Martinique have been shamefully supplied with negroes and provisions by the subjects of Great Britain. That such a commerce is carried on we are the more ready to believe, because we ourselves knew the same practised in the late war. Traders from New England, New York, and Ireland, carried cargoes of provision and slaves to St. Eustatia, where they received a Dutch pilot, and a Dutch pass; by virtue of which they sailed, without fear or danger, even within sight of our cruisers, to Martinique and Guadelupe, where they were indulged with any price they pleased to demand for commodities, without which the enemy could not have subsisted.

Capt. Gardiner's journal begins with the sailing of the fleet from Spithead, under the command of Capt. Hughes, in the latter end of October 1758, includes all the material transactions of the fleet and army for the reduction of Martinique, Guadelupe, Marigalante, &c. and ends with the return of Capt. Hughes, with a convoy of two hundred sail of merchantmen.

As the public is pretty well acquainted with the great outlines of this fortunate expedition, we shall only point out some particulars of this journal, which are not only very singular in themselves, but also generally unknown in this part of the world.

\* About

“ About noon the troops were seen advancing up the hill which overlooked the town and citadel, when to observers in the squadron all appearances seemed to promise success, and flattered them with a speedy conquest of the metropolis of the island ; but

“ At two general Hopson sent on board the Cambridge, to acquaint the commodore, that he found it impossible to maintain his ground, unless the squadron could give him assistance by landing some heavy cannon, &c. at the Savanna, near the town of Port-Royal, or that the commodore would attack the citadel in the bay at the same time he did it on the shore, both which the council of war (which was immediately held) judged to be impracticable, as in landing the cannon at the Savanna, the boats employed must of necessity be exposed to the fire of the garrison ; \* nor could the citadel be attacked by the squadron without the greatest risque, for the easterly wind and leeward current constantly setting out of the bay prevented the men of war from proceeding any higher up, without being obliged to tack frequently ; in doing of which some hours would be taken up, all which time they could not fail of being cannonaded from the citadel, from the battery at Pidgeon-Island, and from another strong battery at the upper end of the bay from the opposite shore to the town. It was however proposed to land the cannon at Fort Negro, which the seamen were to draw to any place where the general should judge most convenient to form his attack ; and accordingly the squadron came to an anchor.

“ At four o’clock it appeared that general Hopson thought proper to retire with the troops, and orders were given to have the boats ready to assist in bringing them off.

“ Jan. 23. At seven in the morning commodore Moore shifted his broad pendant from the Cambridge, and hoisted it on board the Woolwich of forty guns.

“ At half an hour past seven, the commodore made the signal to engage.”

*N. B.* This engagement is illustrated by an accurate plan, representing the ships as they lay before the different batteries.

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\* ‘ The difficulty of landing cannon from catamarans is at all times found to be so very great, as renders it next to impossible to succeed where any enemy can annoy you in the execution ; and therefore is never attempted but in places of security, and out of the reach of their guns.

The

The ships are distinguished by their names, and the whole explained by references at the bottom of the page. The letter Q exhibits commodore Moore at the head of the transports, with his broad pendent flying on board the Woolwich frigate, without cannon-shot of the forts and batteries. This precaution of shifting his flag, when his own ship engaged, that he himself might at distance survey the whole scene of the battle, and take his measures with the more coolness and precision, argues a sedate composure, and a true zeal for the service, howsoever it may be neglected or despised by other commanders. We remember to have seen the same expedient practised in the last war at Boca-chica, by an admiral now deceased. The like proposal was made by admiral Vernon to old Lestock, who, whatever other faults he might have, was never suspected of being afraid of his bacon: but he replied, with equal warmth and obstinacy, " No, by G—d ! my ship and I go together; nor will " I shift my pendent while she can swim under me."

• *Mons. Bompard arrives, and Mr. Moore sails to Prince Rupert's Bay, Dominica.*

• 13. The squadron sailed this morning to Prince Rupert's bay, and this day came to an anchor there, followed by the St. George and Buckingham, from Basse-Terre road, and the Rippon and Bristol from their cruize, who joined on the twenty-first.

• The privateers of the enemy took advantage of this movement, and all the time \* the French and English squadrons were watching each other in the two bays. They went out roving along the coasts, and took above eighty or ninety sail of our merchantmen, which they carried in prizes to Martinique.

• These frequent captures occasioned heavy complaints from the British Islands, for they said it was equally as practicable for the English squadron to have anchored in Port-Royal, as in Prince Rupert's bay, by which two ends had been answered, the French men of war could not have got out, nor the privateer prizes have got in: of course the latter must have fallen into the hands of our cruisers, and have been retaken; no harbour being then open to them, but St. Pierre's or Granada, either of which was at any time to be blockaded by a single frigate.

\* Above eleven weeks, from Friday March 16 to Sunday June 3.

Had the English made their appearance off Port-Royal bay, Mons. Du Bompas must have been reduced to the alternative either of fighting a superior force, or of retiring behind the citadel into the carenage to avoid it; leaving to Mr. Moore room to come to an anchor with his squadron between Fort Negro and Pidgeon-Island, where he lay before.

To this it was replied, that the heavy ships, such as the St. George and Cambridge, might be drove to leeward in attempting to get into the bay, or that the enemy by constantly having the advantage of the trade-wind, and current, might at any time send down fire-ships upon the men of war in the night.'

The following character of a gentleman, who was blown up by accident in the citadel, does equal honour to the painter and the subject.

Lieut. Col. Desbrisay was captain of foot at the battle of Laffieldt or Val, near Mastricht in 1747; where being wounded, and lying upon the ground amongst the slain, he was run thro' by a French officer, whose unmanly example was immediately followed by the platoon he commanded, all or most of them planting their bayonets in different parts of his body: of about thirteen wounds which he received, eight were judged to be mortal. Being afterwards at table with the marechal count de Saxe, of whose politeness as an enemy many honourable instances were given in course of the late war, he was strongly sollicited by the marechal to tell him " who the officer was " that had used him so very unlike a soldier, threatening to " disgrace him at the head of the regiment;" but Desbrisay, though well acquainted with his name, the commission he bore, and the corps he served in, most generously declined it; contenting himself with letting his excellency know, that he was not a stranger to his person, and begging his excuse from being obliged to point him out.

As he was at all times alert, so was he very indefatigable; had a thorough knowledge of his profession, and was master of great application in it. He was quick, and had a happy presence of mind which foresaw a difficulty and the method to conquer it at one and the same instant; cool in action, and brave without ostentation; presuming never upon a superiority of parts, but always diffident of himself; thought and read much, and was ever forming some new design to molest and annoy the enemy.

‘ The service of the publick was the spring that wound him up and put his whole frame in motion.

‘ He had the true fire of a soldier in him, and with it was as compleat a gentleman as any in the service, dying sincerely regretted by every officer of his acquaintance.

‘ May 1. At this juncture the commodore received intelligence that Mons. Du Bompar had sailed some days from Martinico, and was seen with his squadron out at sea, seven leagues to windward of Marigalante, seemingly with a design to land some forces at Grande-Terre, which he accordingly effected, and dis-embarked the Swiss battalion, consisting of 500 men; upon landing they found the island surrendered, and not having advanced far up into the country, retreated before the English troops could have notice of them. They were immediately pursued, and about thirty of the Swiss deserted; the rest were put into the boats and got off.

‘ May 2. At two this afternoon the commodore made the signal to prepare to sail, and at half an hour past nine in the evening to weigh; when he sailed with the squadron out of Prince Rupert’s bay, having first made a signal for all lieutenants, and sent the line of battle to each ship.

‘ The commodore, with the rest of the squadron, came to an anchor in Prince Rupert’s bay; as did Mons. Bompar, with his squadron, the day before, in the bay of Port-Royal, having never seen each other; which occasioned it to be ludicrously said by the people of Dominica at our return, “ That the English went on one side of the island, and the French on the other, for fear they should meet.”

‘ Martinique is called the capital island, from the constant residence of the governour, who commands over all, as the governour of Antigua does in like manner over St. Kitt’s, Nevis, Montseratt, and other the Carribbees with us; but it is neither so strong nor so capable of defence as Guadelupe: the citadel is indeed extremely difficult to be attacked by sea, and to shipping perhaps impregnable on account of the trade-wind and current setting constantly out of the bay of Port-Royal, but it is practicable to take it by land; and though the English troops did not succeed on the present attempt, it is not thence to be concluded that it was not to be reduced: different reasons might prevail on different persons, and it is very certain both islands could not fall a sacrifice; for the taking of one would render it impracticable to attack the other with any probability of

of success, since half the regiments must have been employed in garrisons to secure the new conquest: Guadelupe might therefore be, for ought I know, the greater object of consideration to the British generals, as it was a nest of Flibustiers and Privateers, constantly infesting the British trade; for most of the ships trading to Antigua, Nevis, St. Kitt's, Jamaica, or the Spanish Main, are obliged in their passage to the West-Indies, to strike Deseda first, to make the land, from which they were discernible immediately to the French at Guadelupe, who never failed to send their schooners and petiaugres out, and were perpetually bringing in of English prizes to the town and road of Basie-Terre, where they were protected by the cannon of the citadel and batteries, from any attempts of our cruizers to retake them: for this reason, and for others that could be given, the possession of Guadelupe is of the greatest importance to English merchants in time of war, and indeed on many accounts it appears to be the most valuable island of the two, and the more noble acquisition to the crown of England.'

Our author makes honourable mention of every officer of the least distinction, whether in the army or navy, who signalized himself by his courage or conduct on this important expedition. He has done justice to the consummate conduct, resolution, and humanity of general Barrington, the enterprizing genius of brigadier Crumpe, the valour and activity of lieutenant-colonel Melville, of the land-service; and, in the navy, to the youthful ardour of the brave old Leslie, the intrepidity of Shuldam, the impetuosity of Burnet, the courage of Jekyl, and the gallantry of Gayton. In a word, he writes like a scholar, an officer, and a gentleman.

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ART. VII. *The Mirrour: or, a Chain of Reflections, founded on true moral Principles; wherein are Rules laid down for the Conduct and Oeconomy of Life, for promoting true Happiness by the Regulation of the Passions, and the Practice of every social Virtue. Extracted partly from the most celebrated Authors, joined to a Series of Observations on Mankind. Being a complete System of Eticks. Wherein the many Exceptions, so justly censured in the Maxims of that celebrated French Moralist the Duke of Rochefoucault, are carefully avoided.* 12mo. Pr. 2s. Owen.

**H**OW this performance came to be intitled a *Chain of Reflections*, we know not: certain we are that the thoughts are generally as wide of each other as Portsmouth from Newcastle. This, however, is a piece of address not always to be

charged upon the authors, since it is a standing maxim with the publishers, that a well-chosen first leaf, like a well-placed first blow, is more than half the battle. We cannot say that our philosopher discovers any extraordinary proofs of deep penetration, notwithstanding the pains which he professes to have taken in developing human nature. In a collection of apothegms, it is not enough that the sentiments be just; they must be striking and uncommon. A diffuse stile is, above all others, the least suited to this species of writing: poignancy and a neatness of expression are essentially necessary to impress the maxims. We read Seneca's moral pieces with less pleasure than those of Cicero; but we remember whole pages of the sage, when we would find it difficult to retain a sentence of the orator. The author of these reflections has so little regarded this particular, that he would seem to have published his common-place book, assuming only to himself the privilege of uttering, in very indifferent language, what has often been expressed with elegance. In this whole collection we do not remember a single thought, that is not as trite and beaten as the street from Charing-cross to the Exchange; unless the following may be called otherwise, which we think by much the best in the volume.

‘ The condition of the envious man is the most emphatically miserable: he is not only incapable of rejoicing in another's merit or success, but lives in a world wherein all mankind are in a plot against his quiet, by studying their own happiness and advantage.

‘ So insinuating are the pleasures of sympathy, and so widely diffused through our whole lives, that there is hardly such a thing as satisfaction or contentment, of which they make not an essential part.

‘ When an old man bewails the loss of such gratifications which are passed, he discovers a monstrous inclination to that which is not in the course of Providence to recall. The state of an old man, who is dissatisfied, merely for his being such, is the most out of all measure of reason, and good sense, of any being, from the highest angel to the lowest worm. How miserable is the contemplation, to consider a libidinous old man (while all created things, besides himself and devils, are following the order of Providence) fretting at the course of things, and being almost the sole malecontent in the creation!

‘ A modest man preserves his character, as a frugal man does his fortune; if either of them live up to the heighth, one will find

find losses, the other errors, which he has not stook by him to make up. It is therefore a just rule, to keep your desires, your words, and actions, within the regard you observe your friends have for you; and never, if it were in a man's power, to take as much as possibly he might, either in preferment or reputation.

‘ It is a common thing for men to hate those that were the cause of their preferment, because they were no strangers to their mean original.

‘ Many have taught others to deceive, by fearing to be deceived; and, by suspecting them, have given them a kind of title to do ill.

‘ In censuring another's foibles, it requires great judgment; for reproof is often bitter, and wants a great deal of caution to sweeten and correct it. Now this is not to be done by the tempering our own praises with the reprehension of another; for he is an unworthy and odious fellow who seeks his own credit through any man's disgrace, basely endeavouring to build a slight reputation of his virtue upon the discovery of another's crimes.

‘ A modest person seldom fails to gain the good will of those he converses with; because nobody envies a man who does not appear to be pleased with himself.

‘ Notwithstanding all the advantages of youth, few young people please in conversation; the reason is, that want of experience makes them positive, and what they say is rather with a design to please themselves than any one else.

‘ Love refines a man's behaviour, but makes a woman often ridiculous.’

To conclude, though we are of opinion this collection of maxims was by no means wanted, yet may it prove an useful *wade mecum* to persons who are too indolent to think for themselves, too young to have received improvement from experience, and too illiterate to have amassed a store of ideas from books.

**ART. VIII.** *High Life below Stairs. A Farce of two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-lane. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Newbery.*

THEME was when the English comedy thought proper to borrow characters from the French theatre, and the expedient succeeded with other fashions imported from the same country, though sometimes attended with the most ridiculous absurdity. For example, every fop that appeared on the English stage, was a French marquis from Moliere, though your English *Smart*, and your French *Petit-maitre*, are coxcombs of a very different flavour: but, what was still more glaring, blunt *John* the footman, and prim *Sue* the waiting-woman, were metamorphosed into the gay mercurial *valet*; and the sprightly, loquacious *Soubrette*, the confidants and companions of the master and the mistress. The author did not reflect, perhaps he did not know the difference between the genius of the French and English nations, that our neighbours actually admit their servants to all these familiarities, and converse with them as humble friends and counsellors; but he could not be ignorant, that such a commerce is altogether unknown in England, where the servants in general are very dull and phlegmatic, and are seldom addressed by their superiors, but in the stile of command or reprehension. The same impropriety is visible in the choice our writers have made of their comic subjects, which are generally no other than French pieces, translated and a little altered from the original plan. It must be owned, however, that of late we have ventured to entertain the public with follies of our own growth; and that the harvest hath made amends for the culture.

The author of the farce now before us, is commendable for his design to reform the vices and extravagance of servants, which are, indeed, evils grown monstrous and intolerable. The waste, riot, and frauds, committed by the servants of fashionable people, are altogether incredible. They not only insist upon eating, drinking, and sleeping, as well as their masters; but they cannot live without their *menuis plaisirs*. They entertain company at home and abroad, keep mistresses, game, drink, and swagger; extort money from the guests and the tradesmen that visit and supply the family; cheat their masters in every article of expence; secrete wine and provision; light the candle at both ends, and, in a word, behave like so many hussars in a house abandoned to plunder. One would imagine they were hired, not to serve but to ruin their master; and that they

they were all joined by oath, in an association to hunt him down : nor is their insolence inferior to their villainy ; if they are chid for their faults, they pour forth a torrent of unsufferable abuse ; if they are chastised with stripes for their impudence, they either return the salutation with interest, or prosecute their master at law for an assault. How far this evil may increase, we cannot determine ; but if it had happened six or seven hundred years ago, we do not doubt but that some considerate pope would have raised a crusade against such a dangerous crew of domestic enemies.

The plan of *High Life below Stairs*, is briefly thus : *Lovel*, a Creole gentleman, being informed by an anonymous letter, that he is sadly cheated by his servants ; resolves to be an eye-witness of their conduct ; imparts his scheme to his friend *Freeman* ; feigns a journey into the country ; disposes himself as a rustic boy, and is by *Freeman* recommended to the care of his own butler. By virtue of this passport he is admitted to an entertainment given by his own servants ; discovers all their extravagance, knavery, and ingratitude ; turns off the delinquents with disgrace ; prefers *Tom*, a surly fellow, whose honesty appears in opposition to the villainy of the rest ; and rewards the servant of *Freeman*, who proves to be author of the anonymous letter he had received.

There is not much *comic power* shewn in this performance ; but there is a great deal of propriety, and the piece is not altogether without humour. Nothing can be more ludicrous than the affectation of lacquies and chambermaids, who assume the titles and airs of their lords and ladies : indeed, nothing can be a severer satire on the quality, than seeing their servants imitate so perfectly those manners, and that kind of conversation, by which they choose to distinguish themselves from the vulgar.

There cannot be a more diverting picture of menial insolence and folly, than that scene in which the coachman, negro, and cook, are represented disputing with each other who shall go to the door, while some body knocks with great violence. The directions given to *Lovel*, under the disguise of a country-boy, are a good satire on bad servants. They are supposed taken from a book, called *The Servant's Guide to Wealth, &c.*

‘ *Kitty*. (reads.) Advice to the footman :

“ Let it for ever be your plan  
To be the master, not the man,  
And do—as little as you can.”

‘ Lovel. He, he, he !—Yes, I’ll do nothing at all—not I.

‘ Kitty. “ At market, never think it stealing,  
“ To keep with tradesmen *proper* dealing ;  
“ All stewards have a fellow-feeling.” }  
} {

‘ Philip. You will understand that better one day or other, boy.

‘ Kitty. To the groom :  
“ Never allow your master able  
“ To judge of matters in the stable.  
“ If he should roughly speak his mind,  
“ Or to dismiss you seems inclin’d,  
“ Lame the best horse, or break his wind.” }  
} {

‘ Lovel. Oddness ! that’s good—he, he, he ;

‘ Kitty. To the coachman :  
“ If your good master on you doats,  
“ Ne’er leave his house to serve a stranger,  
“ But pocket hay, and straw, and oats,  
“ And let the horses eat the manger.”

‘ Lovel. Eat the manger ! he, he, he !

‘ Kitty. I won’t give you too much at a time—Here boy, take the book, and read it every night and morning before you say your prayers.

‘ Philip. Ha, ha, ha !—very good—But now for business.

‘ Kitty. Right—I’ll go and get out one of the damask table-cloths, and some napkins ; and be sure, Phil, your side-board is very smart. [Exit.

‘ Philip. That it shall—Come, Jemmy— [Exit.

‘ Lovel. Soh !—Soh !—It works well.’ [Exit.

In Act II. the servants and their guests are seen carousing. A minuet is ridiculously danced by Mrs. Kitty, and the footman of one Sir Harry : a ludicrous quarrel ensues between the said Sir Harry and another guest, a duke in livery, who challenge each other to single combat behind Montague-house. In the mean time Lovel pretending to be drunk, is allowed to go to bed, and withdraws, that he may interrupt them in *propria persona*. Accordingly their entertainment is disturbed by a knocking at the door. The black runs up, and having peeped through the key-hole, alarms them with the information that it is his master, with his friend Freeman.

They are overwhelmed with dismay, and run about in the utmost confusion. Sir Harry descends into the cellar ; his grace is concealed in the coal-hole ; and the ladies are crammed into the pantry. Lovel is at length admitted, and enters with pistols, affecting inebriation, and accompanied by Freeman. His servant Philip, who was the father of the feast, begs his honour will go into the parlour ; but he insists on sitting where he is, and

and pretending to be hungry, desires to see what is in the pantry. This inquiry produces a scene of ridiculous distress among the imprisoned guests, one of whom happening to sneeze, Lovel snatches up a pistol, declaring he will fire into the pantry.

‘ *Lovel.* I am a damn’d good marksman. [Cocks the pistol, and points it at the pantry-door.]—Now for it! [A violent shriek and all is discovered.]—Who the devil are all these?—One,—two,—three,—four.

‘ *Philip.* They are particular friends of mine, sir. Servants to some noblemen in the neighbourhood.

‘ *Lovel.* I told you there were thieves in the house.

‘ *Freeman.* Ha, ha, ha.

‘ *Philip.* I assure your honour they have been entertained at our own expence, upon my word.

‘ *Kitty.* Yes, indeed, your honour, if it was the last word I had to speak.—

‘ *Lovel.* Take up that bottle—[*Philip takes up a bottle with a ticket to it, and is going off.*]—Bring it back—Do you usually entertain your company with Tokay, monsieur?

‘ *Philip.* I, sir, treat with wine!

‘ *Lovel.* O yes, from humble Port to imperial Tokay too.

[Mimicking himself.

‘ *Philip.* How!—Jemmy my master!

‘ *Kitty.* Jemmy! the devil!

‘ *Philip.* Your honour is at present in liquor—But in the morning, when your honour is recovered, I will set all to rights again.—

‘ *Lovel.* (Changing his countenance, and turning his wig.) We’ll set all to rights now—There, I am sober, at your service—What have you to say, Philip? [*Philip starts.*] You may well start—Go, get out of my sight.

‘ *Duke.* Sir—I have not the honour to be known to you, but I have the honour to serve his grace the duke of—

‘ *Lovel.* And the impudence familiarly to assume his title—Your grace will give me leave to tell you, “That is, the door”—and if you ever enter there again, I assure you, my lord duke, I will break every bone in your grace’s skin—Begone—I beg their ladyships’ pardon, perhaps they cannot go without chairs,—Ha, ha, ha.

‘ *Freeman.* Ha, ha, ha.

[*Sir Harry steals off.*

‘ *Duke.* Low-bred fellows!

[*Exit.*

‘ *Lady Charlotte.* I thought how this visit would turn out.

[*Exit.*

‘ *Lady Bab.* They are downright Hottenpots.

[*Exit.*

‘ *Philip and Kitty.* I hope your honour will not take away our bread.

‘ *Lovel.*

‘ Lovel. “ Five hundred pounds will set you up in a cholate-house—You’ll shine in the bar, madam”—I have been an eye-witness of your roguery, extravagance, and ingratitude.

‘ Philip and Kitty. Oh, sir!—Good, sir!

‘ Lovel. You, madam, may stay here till to-morrow morning—And there, madam, is the book you lent me, which I beg you’ll read “ night and morning before you say your prayers.”

‘ Kitty. I am ruin’d and undone.—— [Exit.]

‘ Lovel. But you, sir, for your villainy, and (what I hate worse) your hypocrisy, shall not stay a minute longer in this house ; and here comes an honest man to shew you the way out —Your keys, sir.—— [Philip gives the keys.]

‘ Enter Tom.

— Tom, I respect and value you—You are an honest servant, and shall never want encouragement.—Be so good, Tom, as to see that gentleman out of my house [points to Philip]—and then take charge of the cellar and plate.

‘ Tom. I thank your honour ; but I would not rise on the ruin of a fellow-servant.

‘ Lovel. No remonstrances, Tom ; it shall be as I say.—

‘ Philip. What a cursed fool have I been ? [Exeunt servants.]

‘ Lovel. Well, Charles, I must thank you for my frolick—It has been a wholesome one to me—Have I done right ?

‘ Freeman. Entirely—No judge could have determin’d better —As you punish’d the bad, it was but justice to reward the good.—

‘ Lovel. A faithful servant is a worthy character.

‘ Freeman. And can never receive too much encouragement.

‘ Lovel. Right.

‘ Freeman. You have made Tom very happy.

‘ Lovel. And I intend to make your Robert so too—Every honest servant should be made happy.

‘ Freeman. But what an insufferable piece of assurance is it in some of these fellows to affect and imitate their master’s manners ?

‘ Lovel. What manners must those be, which they can imitate ?

‘ Freeman. True.

‘ Lovel. If persons of rank would act up to their standard, it would be impossible that their servants could ape them—But when they affect every thing that is ridiculous, it will be in the power of any low creature to follow their example.’

The moral is so obvious that it needs no explanation ; and we hope it will make a due impression the minds of all servants who have any regard to their conscience and character.

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

**ART. IX.** *Histoire de la Louisiane, contenant la Decouverte de ce vaste Pays ; sa Description géographique ; un Voyage dans les Terres ; L'Histoire naturelle ; les Mœurs, Coutumes, Religion des Naturels, avec leur Origines ; deux Voyages dans le Nord du nouveau Mexique, dont un jusqu' a la Mer Sud ; ornée de deux Cartes, & de 40 Planches en Taille douce.* Par M. Le Page du Pratz. En trois Tomes. A Paris.

FROM the perusal of this performance, it will appear that the French, contrary to their common character of being frivolous and inconstant, are equally enterprising and indefatigable in extending their conquests, their settlements, and commerce : that although they have lost the possession of Canada by the uncommon vigour of the British arms, they still occupy an immense country in America, lying under a more indulgent climate, and productive of a much greater variety of commodities either for traffick or convenience, than ever could be found in the territories of Quebec. This wide extended country is called Louisiana, deriving that appellation from the French king Lewis, and is watered by the great river St. Louis, navigable nine hundred leagues from the sea, distinguished among the natives by the name of *Meact Chassipi*, signifying, *the old Father of the Rivers*, corrupted by the French into the word *Mississippi* ; a term well known by the fatal scheme projected by Mr. Law, in the year 1719. Such is the restless spirit of our neighbours, that while they retain any settlements in this country, they will never desist from attempts to extend their quarters ; to embroil us with the natives ; to anticipate our trade in the interior countries ; and finally, to regain what they have lost on the river of St. Laurence. If it is intended therefore to annex our late conquests to the British crown, it will be absolutely necessary to extirpate the French government from every part of that continent : for while they keep as much ground as a fort will stand upon, the English colonies can neither hope for security nor success.

The author of the three volumes now before us resided a great many years in Louisiania, learned the language of the natives, became intimately acquainted with their manners, customs, and tradition ; knew, by experience, the nature of the land and climate, and made an excursion of several months into the interior parts of the country, to examine its productions in the animal, vegetable, and mineral worlds. A person like him, endued by

nature

nature with a good capacity, and tolerably well tinctured with education, could not fail with such advantages to collect very valuable materials for a natural history, which he now gives to the public.

In the first volume, we have a distinct and minute geographical description of Louisiana, illustrated with two charts partly taken from Spanish maps, and partly from an actual survey, or at least ocular observation. Here too we have an account of his voyage from Old France by the way of St. Domingo, his landing in the river St. Louis, and his settlement among the people called *Natches*. Among many other curious particulars, he entertains us with the speech made by the orator of the *Tobitomachas*, when he presented the calumet of peace to the French governor, after an unsuccessful war which they had maintained against this officer. He adjusted his robe and his attitude, and, standing up with a majestic air, spoke to this effect.

“ My heart laughs with joy to see me here before thee. We have heard of the word of peace which thou hast pronounced. The hearts of our whole nation laugh with joy, even to trepidation. Our women, forgetting at once all the evils they have suffered, have danced with joy : our children have leaped like young roebucks, running to and fro, as if they had lost their senses. Thy word of peace will never be lost ; our hearts and our ears are full of it, and our posterity will preserve it as long as our ancient tradition shall remain. War having reduced us to poverty, we have been obliged to hunt for furs for a present to thee, and to dress the skins before we came hither : but our men durst not go far in hunting, lest the other nations, who are jealous of us, should not have heard thy word : it was with fear and trembling that we ventured so far this way to see thy face. How my heart and eyes are rejoiced to see thee this day, to speak to thee with my own lips, without fearing that the wind will scatter our words up and down the high-way ! Our presents are small ; but our hearts are great to obey thy commands. Whenever thou shalt speak, our limbs will quiver and leap like those of the hart, to execute thy orders.” Here the orator made a pause ; then raising his voice, proceeded in these words : “ Ah ! how beautiful is the sun to-day, in comparison of what it was when thine anger was kindled against us ! Alas ! how dangerous is the wicked man ! Thou knowest that one of our men slew a Frenchman, whose fate has been the death of our best warriors. We have none remaining but old men, women, and children. Thou didst demand the head of the murderer as the price of peace : we have brought it ; and behold this is the only old warrior

rior who had courage enough to attack and slay him : be not surprised at it : he has always been a good man, and a true warrior. He is the kinsman of our sovereign ; and his heart weeps night and day, because his wife and children are now no more, since this unfortunate war : but he is now satisfied, and so am I to-day, because he hath slain thy enemy and his own. Heretofore the sun was red ; the roads were covered with briars and brambles ; the clouds were black ; the waters were troubled and dyed with our blood ; our women wept without ceasing ; our children cried with affright ! Our game fled far from us ; our houses were deserted ; and our lands lying untilled, our bellies were empty, and our bones stuck through the skin. To day the sun is warm and bright, and the heavens are without a cloud : the roads are clean and agreeable ; the water is so clear that we see our images within it ; the game returns ; our wives dance till they forget to eat ; our children skip like young fawns ; the heart of our whole nation laughs with joy, to see the day when we shall travel in the same road with you Frenchmen. The same sun shall light us ; we will have but one heart and one speech, and we will eat and drink together like friends and brothers—Will not this be happy ? What sayest thou ?”

Mr. Du Pratz proceeds to describe the people called *Natches*, among whom he settled, the rivers *St. Peter*, *St. Croix*, *Missouri*, the river of the *Illinois*, and of the *Canzes*, the river *Ouabache*, or *Ohio*, the river of *St. Francis*, of the *Arkansas*, of the *Yazous*, the *White River*, the *Red River*, the river of *Amity*, the rivers of *Tandgi-pas*, *Quesonclé*, *Castinbayone*, of *Pearls*, of the *Paska-ogoulas* ; and that called *La Mobile*. He gives a detail of the first war with the *Natches*, and of its being renewed by the French governor : then he favours us with a diary of his five months excursion to the inland parts of the country ; an excursion in the history of which the reader will find much entertainment and information relating to what he saw and discovered. He goes on to explain the qualities of the different soils in Louisiana. He finds excellent water, pure as well as medicinal, quarries of freestone, mines of silver, iron, copper, lead, and coal : rich meadows, fertile fields, great plenty of timber of all sorts ; abundance of game, buffalo, stags, roebucks, wild turkeys, partridges, and many other species ; wolves, possums, and beavers. The rivers and lakes afford vast quantities of delicious fish. The land when cultivated yields plenty of corn, oats, maiz, cotton, flax, hemp, tobacco, and indigo.

In the second volume, our author treats of the grain and greens that are raised in Louisiana, the cultivation of the different kinds of maize, wheat, rye, barley, and oats, rice, beans,

pota-

potatoes, yams, water-melons, grapes, of which last there is a double vintage every summer, a fruit called piacminier, resembling the medlar, plums, cherries, peaches, figs, oranges, citrons, lemons, apples, pears, mulberries, olives, walnuts, filberts, chesnuts, and dates. We have also a catalogue of plants and trees natives of this country, and among others a particular description of the wax tree, which we wish we had room to insert. All these herbs or trees, or at least the most remarkable among them, are represented on poultry copper-plates, ill drawn, and wretchedly engraved. Among these we find the plant called by the natives *Oudla-Coudlogouille*, with a bulbous root like an onion, which is found to be specific against the bite of the rattle-snake. This is quite a different plant from the *Polygola Virginiana*, whose root is used with the same effect, for the same purpose, by the Senekka Indians. It was found equally efficacious in pleurisies and peripneumonies, and the person who first used it in these distempers, having communicated his success to the public, was solemnly thanked by a vote of the assembly, and received from it an honorary reward for his ingenuous discovery. This unhappy man, whose name was *Tennent*, published a small treatise on the subject, which was well received by the public: he came over to London, and was countenanced by some persons of consequence: but his discretion was not equal to his ingenuity. He ran in debt, lost his character, fell into bad hands, and died in prison. His discovery, which might have proved a valuable addition to the *Materia Medica*, shared his disgrace, and like himself is now in oblivion. The *Oudla-Coudlogouille* resembles the tuberose, both in the root and leaves; but the first is larger, and the leaves are pointed with a very fine prickle. It bears on each four or five different stems, a purple flower of five petals, formed in a cup; so that, according to the system of Linnæus, it is a *Pentandria*. When the flower drops off it leaves behind, a head as large as a nut, in four separate divisions, each containing four black seeds; and when this is shaken, it emits a rattling sound like that of the rattle-snake's tail. In all probability, this resemblance in the sound first induced the natives to try its effects in the bite of the snake. When a person is bit by this animal, he takes the bulbous root of the *Oudla-Coudlogouille*, and chewing, it applies the mass to the wound, from whence in four or five hours, it extracts the whole poison. The *Polygola Virginiana* is taken internally. Here are many plants excellent both in medicinie and dying, which we cannot pretend to particularize.

Our author having discussed the plants, particularizes the quadrupeds of that country, the buffalo or wild beef, the stag, the roe-buck, the wolf, the bear, the tyger, the pichou, the fox, the

wild

wild cat, the rabbit, the wood-rat, the stinkard, the squirrel, porcupine, hedge-hog, castor, otter, tortoise, crocodile, or alligator, lizard, snakes, and serpents. All these he describes minutely, with regard to their natures and instincts, the manner of hunting them, the quality of their flesh, and the value of their skins. In the same manner he distinguishes the birds and fowls, among which we find the eagle, the wren, the falcon, carrion crow, cormorant, bustard, pelican, crane, flamingo, spatula, heron, teal, crooked-bill, moor-game, king's fisher, goilan, lark, noddy, turkey, pheasant, partridge, woodcock, snipe, quail, ortolan, corbjeau, perroquet, turtle-dove, wood-pidgeon, crow, raven, owl, magpie, thrush, blackbird, wood-pecker, swallow, nightingale, pope, cardinal, bishop, colibri, and the troniu. What follows is a description of the reptiles, and then we come to the particular fishes.

The next chapter begins with an account of the natives of Louisiana, their manner of kindling fires, their natural hatchets, knives, bows and arrows, skins, huts, agriculture, and mills; their pottery, sieves, fishing-lines, seats, beds, baskets, panniers, embroidery, boats, canoes, dress, robes, shoes, earings, neck-laces, and other ornaments.

This subject being finished, he describes other nations around, such as the *Apalaches*, the *Alibamous*, the *Caouitas*, the *Abeikas*, and *Conchucks*; the *Cherokees*, the *Chatots*, the *Thomez*, the *Tacusas*, the *Mobilians*, the *Pachcaogoulas*, the *Chatkas*, the *Tchicachas*, the *Colapissas*, the *Oumas*, the *Tonicas*, the *Grigras*, the *Thioux*, the *Yazoux*, the *Coroas*, the *Chatchi Oumas*, the *Oufe-ogoulas*, the *Tapoussas*, the *Ilinois*, *Renards*, *Scoux*, *Tchaouachas*, *Ouachas*, *Tchitimachas*, *Atac-apas*, *Bayouc-ogoulas*, *Oequeloussas*, *Avoyelles*, *Nacchitoches*, *Cadodaquiox*, *Ouachitas*, *Arkansas*, *Kappas*, *Mitchigamias*, *Osages*, and *Missouris*.

In describing the French settlements on the river St. Louis, we have an account of New Orleans, the capital of the colony, which, however, is a place of no great importance; and we are entertained with many interesting stories, which we cannot pretend to communicate.

The latter part of the second volume is employed upon the manners and customs of the natives of Louisiana, particularly of the *Natches*, a people distinguished above the rest by their courage, probity, and politeness, with whom our author was personally connected. He describes, at full length, their persons, habit, exercise, disputes, quarrels, police, education, amusements,

amusements, employment, tradition, nobility, language, religion, superstition, morals, festivals, temples, worship, the feasts of the new year, the new moon, the harvest, the power, grandeur, and magnificence of the *Great Sun*, so they called their sovereign, the ornaments and privileges of the warriors, their grand dance, their marriage, divorce, method of perpetuating the nobility, and other ceremonies. Then he treats of the Americans in general, their belief, their prayers, superstition, courage, character, and food; their declaration of war, council of war, ambassies, auxiliaries, war-dress, provisions of war, war-dance, alarms, hostilities, and method of giving battle; the tortures they inflict on their prisoners, and the surprising fortitude of these captives; the fortresses they use in time of war, and the preliminaries of peace.

The same subject is continued in the third volume, the first chapter of which contains a farther account of their manners, the diversions of the men, women, and children; their conversation, diet, banquets, and fasts. He now again returns to the *Natches*, in order to describe their rustic temple: then compares it with the temples of the other nations, and describes their tombs. In the third chapter he relates the death of the *Pointed Serpent*; such was the name of the *Great Sun's* brother, a mighty warrior, and the particular friend of our author. This was an event of the utmost importance to the whole nation; for, the *Great Sun* had made a vow that he would not survive his brother: and had this vow been fulfilled, the whole nation would have perished by their own hands. The sacred fire was already extinguished by his order, and the death-cry communicated thro' all the villages; so that the people waited, in silent horror, for the next signal to make away with themselves, when our author persuaded the *Great Sun* to lay aside his intention; the fire was immediately rekindled, and extravagant joy succeeded the most dismal despair. This story is very pathetic and interesting. Mean while the *Pointed Serpent* was interred with great pomp, and his whole household sacrificed to his manes; among these his favourite wife behaved with amazing courage, and even followed him to death in a transport of joy.

The following chapters treat of the origin of the different nations in America; and here our author loses himself in a labyrinth of fable, tradition, and conjecture. The most curious part of this dissertation, is a circumstantial detail of a journey made by a native Indian, called *Moncachtape*, from the Ohio westerly to the South Sea, where he assisted the Americans in a

battle

battle against the crew of a Japanese ship, who came thither yearly to cut a yellow wood used in dying.

The ninth, and the two following chapters, contain the journal of an embassy, performed by Mons. de Bourgmont, knight of the royal and military order of St. Louis, commandant of the fort of Orleans, in the river *Missouri*, to the country of the *Padowas*, in order to establish a peace between them and the neighbouring nations.

It was lucky for our author, that he quitted his habitation among the *Natches*, and removed to another part of the country. That people being outraged by the French commandant of the fort in their neighbourhood, who wanted to expel them from their chief village, resolved to be revenged upon him and all the settlers of that quarter ; and accordingly attacking him by surprize, massacred him and all the French that fell in their way. This execution involved them in a war, which ended in their utter extirpation : thus perished a whole people, who had been always remarkably honest, brave, and affectionate to the Europeans, until they were provoked by hard usage and oppression.

In the nineteenth chapter we find some solid reflections upon the necessity of avowing war with the natives, as well as upon the proper methods of carrying it on against those people, when it can no longer be avoided. He afterwards treats of the manner of cultivating maiz, rice, silk-worms, and other productions of the country, such as indigo, tobacco, cotton, wax, hops, and saffron. In the rear of these articles, we have an exact account of the trade that actually exists between Louisiana and France, and Louisiana and the French islands, with schemes for improving the lands and extending the commerce of that country : schemes, which we do not doubt but the French will now execute with uncommon vigour, in order to make themselves amends for the loss of Canada.

The third volume is concluded with the history of a war with the *Tchicachas*, and another with the *Chatkas*, terminated by the prudence of Mons. de Vaudreuil, the same gentleman who commands the French troops that still keep the field against the English in Canada.

Thus have we with no little labour analized a long performance, which, though confused, immethodical, in some parts frivolous, and in others absurd, abounds, nevertheless, with information and amusement.

ART. X. *Journal de Commerce, dédié à son altesse royale Monseigneur le Prince Charles-Alexandre Duc de Lorraine & de Bar, Gouverneur & Capitaine-Général des Pays-Bas pour sa Majesté Impériale, Royal & Apostolique.* Janvier 1759. 12mo.

**I**N the preface to this periodical work we find a great many compliments paid to the English, with an affectation of candour which the authors seem to forget in the sequel. The first article is a catalogue of books and essays written on trade by French, Dutch, English, and Spanish writers, at the head of which they have placed *Savári's Dictionnaire de Commerce*. In the list of English writers we find Sir William Petty, Dr. Davenant, *Mercator*, the British Merchant, Ellis, Hume, Cantillon, Barrow's Navigation, which the Journalists suppose to be the work of the celebrated Dr. Barrow the Divine; Hartlib and Tull on Agriculture: but not a word of Postlethwaite's Dictionary, or Hanway's Travels, though, in the advertisement pre-fixed to this number, both these gentlemen are invited by name to correspond with the Journalists.

The second article consists of trite reflections upon the merit and importance of the mercantile character. The third is called a Letter from a Hollander to one of his Friends, concerning the national credit of France and England; and is, indeed, one of the most impudent, and at the same time contemptible, libels against Great Britain that ever we have seen. If we may believe this spurious Dutchman, in opposition to common sense and daily observation, the public credit in Great Britain is at the utmost stretch, and the nation is on the point of bankruptcy, manufactures sink, trade fails, money there is none; the people are starving; the whole kingdom is filled with clamour; no resource is left; but sudden ruin must ensue. France, on the other hand, has numberless resources: her credit is good; the payments of the government are punctual; and her people are satisfied. It is therefore much more sure to vest money in the funds of that kingdom than in the stocks of England. We heartily wish that this puny letter-writer, if he has really any stock in this country, had withdrawn it, and embarked in the French actions, that experience might now convince him, to his cost, that nothing could be more false and absurd than the inferences he has drawn. According to this politician, the English are not only bankrupts and beggars, but pirates, robbers, and the common disturbers of Europe; and it would be for the honour as well as the interest of the Dutch, to declare war immediately against such free-booters. But, indeed,

deed, the whole of this elaborate essay is a series of gross misrepresentations, palpable untruths, ridiculous positions, and national scurrility. We hold it therefore unworthy of a particular refutation, assured as we are, that not only Europe in general, but even the author himself, must be sensible of the flagrant falsehoods he hath presumed to utter.

Yet, as there is no writing so bad but some advantage may be derived from it, we will, even from this wretched essay, extract a wholesome caution to our countrymen. ‘ What extent (says he) may not France give to her commerce in America, particularly in the cultivation of Louisiana, which of itself is worth a kingdom ! Do you imagine that France will for ever neglect the culture of tobacco ? In a few years Louisiana will be able to furnish what will be sufficient for the whole kingdom, and put an end to the annual tribute of near five millions (livres), which France has payed so long to England ? ’

This is a good hint, in consequence of which it is to be hoped that the English ministry will never listen to any terms of accommodation, until we have driven that perfidious enemy from that boasted settlement, as we have already expelled them from Canada.

This candid letter is followed by an insipid treatise on *Populosity*, intituled *L'ami des Hommes*, the Friend of Mankind ; and that is succeeded by accounts of some puny improvements in the mechanical instruments and arts of manufacture. Finally, the number is concluded with the specification of the prices of different commodities at Amsterdam. On the whole, we believe that neither the design nor the execution of this work will much recommend it to the attention of the English reader.

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ART. XI. *Bibliothecæ Apostoliceæ Vaticanæ Codicum Manuscriptorum Catalogus, &c.* Partis primæ Tomus secundus, complectens codices Chaldaicos, sive Syriacos Comæ 1758. Ex typographia linguarum orientalium, apud Hæredes Barbiellini, ad forum Pasquini.

**I**N the third volume of the Critical Review, page 79, we gave an account of the first volume of this curious Catalogue : the learned authors have now published the second volume, which contains one hundred and two Chaldean or Syrian manuscripts.

## Monthly CATALOGUE.

Art. 12. *Agenor and Isimena; or, the War of the Tender Passions.*  
*A Novel, in two Volumes. Translated from the French. 12mo.*  
*Price 6s. Cooke.*

**T**HREE is nothing more difficult than to characterize books, and hit those little peculiarities which distinguish one author from another, who pursues the same tract. Painting characters is, perhaps, the most delicate province of an historian: it is more so of a Reviewer, as men's opinions are more analogous than their actions. The former are, in general, the result of reason; the latter of passion. An author is careful to advance nothing but what, to him at least, appears reasonable: his ideas are borrowed from reading and observation, and of consequence not very materially different from the ideas of other men; but actions have no rule, and from hence an historian of discernment will discover those marks and personalities which discriminate one man from every other. This remark is the more material, as we find it extremely difficult to paint those features which distinguish *The War of the tender Passions* from another French novel, of which we lately gave an account. Both writers have indulged a war in imagination, governed by little or no judgment. Nature, and all regard to probability, are neglected by both. The latter is the writer of a more delicate, the former of a more masterly and bold hand. The author of *Agenor and Isimena* pleases by a prettiness of style, and a softness of manners; he of the *Female Hater*, by a richness of invention. In the former there is a great deal of little agreeable prattle, which the translator seems to have copied very happily. We may therefore venture, upon the whole, to give it the preference, as the work best calculated for the entertainment of young ladies and children, for whose use it appears to have been wrote.

Art. 13. *The Adventures of a Rake. In the Character of a Public Orator. Interspersed with several serious and comic Pieces, pronounced before some polite Audiences with great Applause, and published at their Request. In two Volumes. By R. Lewis. 12mo.*  
*Price 6s. Withy.*

It is a disagreeable tax we owe to the publick, that we are forced often to condemn with an asperity by no means natural to our disposition; but dulness and immorality united have no claim to mercy. What shall we say to an author, if so wretched

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a scribbler can merit that name, who appears the champion of christianity in one page, and the seducer of virtue in the next; who, after combating deism with pointless weapons, strives to debauch innocence, by impotent attempts to gross and frigid obscenity?—We intreat of thee, Robert Lewis, to lay aside thy pen, till it hath pleased God to work a miracle upon thy understanding, by inspiring thee with ability to use it with profit to thyself, and to thy readers, if any thou hast. We earnestly exhort thee to take, instead of thy quill, any other mechanical instrument, whereby thou may'st become inoffensive in thy generation, and earn a daily livelihood; of which, be assured, thou art totally unworthy as a labourer in the regions of Parnassus. Take this well-meant counsel; and know, that the *Critical Reviewers* are no enemies to thy person, of which they have not the slightest knowledge, but the foes of ignorance, presumption, and dulness. Farewel.

Art. 14. *The True Mentor; or, an Essay on the Education of young People of Fashion.* Translated from the French of the Marquis Caraccioli. 12mo. Price 3s. Coote.

Numberless have been the books written upon education, which, like every other subject, has been treated by men of ability and by dunces. The instruction of youth is however of so much importance to the publick good, that all endeavours to remedy the defects in their education ought to escape censure, should they fall short of applause. When the nobleman, in particular, takes up the pen with this view, we are easily persuaded that he is actuated by publick spirit, and not by vanity or indigence; and the merit of his intention pleads in excuse for the blemishes in the execution. The marquis Caraccioli has here laid down rules for the conduct of the tutor, after describing the qualities which ought to exist in the man intrusted with the weighty charge of training up a young nobleman. It would be hazarding too much to affirm, that the marquis has acquitted himself like a master. The performance, however, may prove useful to some, and was certainly intended for the benefit of all readers.

Art. 15. *An Ode, sacred to the Memory of General Wolfe.* Folio. Price 6d. Millan.

We wish we could praise the execution as much as we revere the subject of this well-meant essay.

Art. 16. *On the Birth-Day of his Royal Highness George Prince of Wales. A Poem: Written on the Fourth of June, 1759. With an Exhortation to the Love of Liberty. Written in the Year 1757, on seeing the Reluctance of several Counties to take up Arms in Defence of their Country. By Mr. Thomas Morey. Fol. Price 1s. Cabe.*

We have not seen a more unexceptionable instance of the *Bathos*, than the exordium of this poem.

‘ All hearts exulting hail’d the new-born day,  
 ‘ The sun rose bright, and drove the clouds away ;  
 ‘ The stars retir’d, with fading envy stung,  
 ‘ And the loud bells in ev’ry steeple rung.’

What follows is still more extraordinary :

‘ No more Britannia’s sons in sable mourn’d ;  
 ‘ ’Twas Time’s great period, and their joys return’d.’

*Time’s great period*, is, we apprehend, the end of all sub-lunary things, or the Day of Judgment ; at which, we are afraid, a great many of Britannia’s sons will have no great cause to rejoice.—But enough of *Thomas Morey*, whom, if we were allowed to pun, we would advise to change his name into *Moria*.

Art. 17. *Farther Animadversions on the Conduct of a late Noble Commander at the Battle of Thornhausen. In Reply to a Pamphlet, intituled, An Answer to a Letter to a late Noble Commander, &c. To which is annexed, An Answer to a Pamphlet, intituled, ‘ Colonel Fitzroy’s Letter considered, so far as it relates to the Author of the Letters,’ &c. By the Author of the two Letters to a late Noble Commander. 8vo. Price 1s. Griffiths.*

This author, who first opened the cry again Lord G——S——lle, and has pursued him ever since with a spirit that does much more honour to his perseverance than to his humanity, has professedly written the pamphlet now before us, in answer to a *Letter to a late Noble Commander, &c.* which Letter is, it seems, the production of the far-famed Dr. Sh——re, who has engaged in his Lordship’s vindication, either as a volunteer, or upon other motives perhaps more interesting. The Replier endeavours to convict this advocate of inconsistency, abuse, and want of candour ; and, which is a task much more difficult, under-

undertakes to prove, that he himself did not attempt to prejudice and possess the public against a nobleman supposed guilty of a capital offence, before any certain intelligence was received touching the nature of this offence; and, of consequence, before his lordship had it in his power to take any measures for his own justification.—We shall not pretend to decide upon the merits or demerits of Lord G—'s behaviour, during the battle of Thornhausen; but we cannot help saying, it requires an uncommon share of assurance in this author to deny what all the world knows, that, without waiting for authentic information, he zealously and hastily collected all the scandalous reports, and vague surmises, that were circulated by his lordship's enemies, and cooked them up into a printed charge against him, with such inflammable ingredients as could not fail to excite the rage and indignation of the people: now we affirm, that this was an anticipation, which prejudiced and prepossessed the people against Lord G—e; and leave it to the cool discerning reader to determine, whether such an anticipation was not illiberal and inhuman. We are glad, however, to find our author, in his appendix, declaring that he 'does not propose ever to 'concern himself farther with this disagreeable and ungrateful 'subject.' It is a subject, the discussion of which belongs to a more important tribunal, which we heartily wish may take cognizance of it, that NATIONAL JUSTICE MAY BE DONE.

Art. 18. *His Lordship's Apology.* 8vo. Price 6d. Reeve.

This is a narrative, in the name of Lord George S——le, of the transactions in which he was concerned during the battle of Minden, with some variation in the circumstances from what was formerly related; and a solemn asseveration, that he knows not of the least delay, on his part, in executing the Duke's orders punctually and immediately, except he was in doubt for above five minutes, whether he should follow what Capt. Ligonier or Col. Fitzroy said.

Art. 19. *A Letter from John Bland to the Friends: In which the Conduct of G—e S——le is defended, on the Principles of Religion.* 8vo. Price 6d. Penn.

The author of this performance, with some humour, and much ironical satire, undertakes the defence of L— G— S——le, on the supposition that his Lordship is and was one of the persecuted people of God, called Quakers, who renounce all warfare with the arm of flesh; valuing themselves upon their passive fortitude, and meekness of spirit.

Art. 20. *A Monody on the Death of Major-General James Wolfe.*  
 To which is added, some Particulars of his Life. 4to. Price 1s.  
 Thrush.

The sons of Grub-street frequently rise in rebellion against our monthly decrees, tax us with partiality and ignorance, and treat us in a very hostile manner upon every occasion: yet, if the truth were known, we are the very best and most constant friends they have in the world; since, let them be never so dull, we are obliged to buy their performances. The rest of the world may forsake them; but they are still sure of one purchaser: and, if upon paying a shilling for a book scarce worth an headless pin, it would be very hard to refuse us the consolation of grumbling a little at our bad bargain.

Among the many pretty pennyworths we sometimes make, the present falls behind neither in quantity nor quality, since it is perhaps the shortest shilling's worth that ever was sold; but happy, were that its only defect: we may add, it is the dullest too. The whole (what d'ye call'em) *Monody*, might be very easily printed upon one page, and the Life upon the opposite. Thus, strung up against a dead wall, it might very equitably be sold at the rate of three for an half-penny, and the printer live by the bargain. We are the longer upon this subject, since this is a species of fraud that we could willingly banish from the press: to sell stupidity is pardonable; but to sell a farthing's worth of it for one shilling, is what, for our own sakes, we never can allow.

But silence to every complaint of our own, and let us hear how the Monodist complains: he begins thus,

‘ As late Britannia o'er the nodding wave  
 ‘ Proclaim'd her empire, and her bulwarks brave  
 ‘ The hostile force of Gallia's lifted arm,  
 ‘ Fair Vict'ry crowns her, and her foes disarm,  
 ‘ This truth she feels; for this let Albion mourn,  
 ‘ And sable clouds her chalky cliffs adorn ||.’

The verses of Ennius were said to preserve their poetical spirit, twist and turn them how you would. Take these, just now recited, twist them, turn them, transpose them, and transverse them again, you'll find them still preserve their original spirit, and be as extatic nonsense as before.

He goes on in the next stanza to tell us a wonder indeed, *viz.* that the precipice was frighted at the General's name:

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|| Congreve,

• Nov

‘ Nor foe, nor precipice, his arm oppose,  
 ‘ Alike they dread, alike revere his name.’

Yet—what signifies comment? Take the lines genuine as they run:

‘ Accept ye manes this gen’rous lay,

(The reader is desired to read *manes* in one syllable poetically.)

‘ Let Iris to the tomb convey,

‘ And read ‘em o’er and o’er;

‘ With laurels wreath the sacred shrine,

‘ Immortal ivy round it twine,

‘ Tell Gallia, Wolfe’s no more !’

These are the very best lines in the whole poem, a third part of which the reader already sees in our quotations.

The Life is no more than a news-paper paragraph, spread out upon half a sheet of paper; and the whole the most impudent piece of dulness that we remember to have seen.

Art. 21. *Daphnis and Menalcas: A Pastoral. Sacred to the Memory of the late General Wolfe. And humbly inscribed to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Esq; 4to. Price 1s. Dodoley.*

If any thing could wake the British lyre into voice, certainly our victories might afford a noble subject. The general who commanded on those glorious occasions, and who expired in the arms of conquest, might serve to animate the poet: the scene too, in which those victories are laid, a country still retaining its primæval wildness, where all is savage, romantic, great, or terrible to the last degree. Such an hero, and such a scene, is certainly capable of filling out every idea of the great and terrible sublime.

We have hitherto, however, had no first-rate genius attempting the subject; nor do our poets keep any pace with our conquerors: the present attempt is neither bad enough to deserve censure, nor good enough to merit praise. The subject, as the writer modestly confesses, is not adapted to his genius, which seems seldom capable of any elevation; though it must be owned the poem, towards the beginning, is tolerable. It falls off, however, towards the conclusion; and we can see, by the whole, that the author could have written better, had he taken more time: but he fancied perhaps the subject would not keep, and the necessity of filling out so much poetry in a given time might have damped his fancy. He is often, however, tolerably poetical: as, for instance, where his Indian shepherd says,

‘ Then

‘ Then to the naked steep let us repair,  
 ‘ Where nodding promontories hang in air ;  
 ‘ Thence we shall see our grazing flocks below,  
 ‘ At distance hear the thund’ring cat’racts flow,  
 ‘ And thence survey, as from great Nature’s throne,  
 ‘ The worlds that Wolfe has made, and Amherst makes our  
 own.’

The poet is sometimes happy in marking the scene of his pastoral ; tho’ still we have an idea of somewhat more great and more truly local :

‘ Ye flocks and herds, along the meadows stray ;  
 ‘ By purling streams, ye lambs, securely play :  
 ‘ Your flocks and herds in peace, O Shepherd, tend,  
 ‘ Your song may lengthen till the sun descend ;  
 ‘ Then back in safety to your cot repair,  
 ‘ And hope to find your wife and children there :  
 ‘ No ambush’d Indian lurks to rob of life  
 ‘ Your tender children and your faithful wife.’

This is not quite despicable ; perhaps we might have called it good, had we not the Oriental Eclogues in our eye, where, tho’ in a different part of the world, every image is more local, more picturesque, and in more harmonious numbers : we fancy the western world is capable of a representation equally exquisite, had it a poet of abilities equal to the representation.

We are not inclined to censure what has the appearance of merit : we shall therefore pass over the numberless Alexandrines, and other poetical inaccuracies, with which this poem abounds, some of which we are apt to ascribe to errors of the press.

*Art. 22. Thoughts on the pernicious Consequences of borrowing Money : with a proposal for raising a supply for the current service. And also for taking off part of our present load of taxes. To which are added, some estimates to shew the advantages that would arise from an equal land-tax. And also, a method proposed for discharging the national debt. The second edition, with great additions. Oct. Pr. 11. Payne.*

The first part of this pamphlet was published at the beginning of the present war, proposing the following scheme :

‘ The amount of the several duties and taxes, ap-	propriated to the payment of the national debt,	as already allowed is, — — — £. 3,001,154
The neat produce of the sinking fund	—	905,511
Malt tax unappropriated generally laid at	—	750,000
 Total net produce of duties and taxes	— —	4,656,665
		‘ This

¶ This, with the civil list revenue, and a land tax of one, two, three, or four shillings in the pound, has not been sufficient to relieve the nation, nor answer the purposes of the state; on the contrary, the debt has increased during every war, ever since we began to borrow; and this method of procuring money, has almost betrayed us into destruction.

¶ It is therefore proposed, that the several duties, and taxes on luxury, and such others as shall be deemed least hurtful to our trade and manufactories, amounting in the whole to 2,500,000 l. per ann. clear of all expences of collecting, as also the civil list revenue be continued; and that all others, amounting to 2,170,000 l. per ann. be entirely abolished; and the expence of collecting, which is very considerable, will of course cease.

¶ Upon this principle an equal land-tax must be laid on all lands, houses, &c. at their full yearly value; and also on all stock-annuities, mortgages, judgments, places and pensions; the whole amount of which yearly value, is generally computed at above thirty millions. But, not to exceed the reality, suppose it to be (clear of all charges of collecting) twenty-five millions only.

The produce of this sum, at sixpence in the pound

is, — — — —	625,000
At one shilling, — — — —	1,250,000
At two shillings, — — — —	2,500,000
At three shillings, — — — —	3,750,000
At four shillings, — — — —	5,000,000

The current yearly expence of this nation, in time of peace, may be computed as follows:

For the navy 10,000 men — — —	800,000
For 20,000 men for guards, garrisons, &c. —	600,000
To which may be added the pay of 60,000 militia, one day in the week, as proposed, —	450,000
Interest on the national debt, which I suppose at present to be 80 millions, at 3 per cent.	2,400,000
	—————
In all	4,250,000

To answer which,

By duties and taxes allowed to subsist on the foregoing scheme — — —	2,500,000
By an equal land-tax as proposed, at 2s. in the pound	2,500,000
	—————
In all	5,000,000
	—————
Which	

Which makes an exceeding of 750,000 l. to answer any exigencies that may arise.

‘ In order to see how this scheme might answer in time of war, it is proper to make an estimate of the expence, which may be computed as follows :

For 45,000 seamen	—	—	—	2,260,000
For 38,056 men for guards, garrisons, &c.	—	—	—	1,123,588
For 11,550 marines,	—	—	—	206,806
For 60,000 militia,	—	—	—	450,000
For the ordinary of the navy,	—	—	—	216,940
For the office of ordnance for the land service,	—	—	—	165,500
Interest on eighty millions	—	—	—	2,400,000
				—————
			In all	6,822,834
				—————

To answer which,

By duties and taxes, as before,	—	—	—	2,500,000
By a land-tax, at 4s. in the pound	—	—	—	5,000,000
			In all	7,500,000
				—————

Which makes an exceeding of 677,166 l. to answer emergencies. By this it plainly appears, that two shillings in the pound land-tax proposed, in time of peace, and four shillings in time of war, will be sufficient; unless something very extraordinary should hapren.—As the nation would not thus be subject to run in debt, what an assurance would it afford of the stability of our funds! It would fix them at almost a certain value; at least they would not be subject to such changes as now they are; nor would the state be reduced to the deplorable necessity of depending on stock-jobbers, who, in proportion to the distress of the publick, boldly dictate in what manner it shall be relieved.\*

This scheme is supported by many arguments and observations, which appear judicious and irresistible. In this second edition, however, he has offered another scheme more general than the former, though founded on the same principle; namely, ‘ That a sufficient number of the duties and taxes, which are least burthensome, along with an equal assessment at 2s. in the pound on all lands, &c. &c. &c. amounting in the whole to an annual sum, sufficient to defray the several expences of the state in time of peace, to pay the interest of our national debt, and also one million, to be applied as above, to the discharge of the principal; be still continued.

\* That

‘ That all the remaining duties and taxes, which I imagine in the whole may amount to one million and half per ann. be entirely abolished. And that all further sums necessary for the support of any future war, be hereafter levied within the year by an equal land-tax, to which the fund for payment of the national debt, with its then encrease, is to be added.’

This is a subject of such importance, and handled in such a manner as we hope will deserve the consideration of the legislature.

Art. 23. *The Duke de Belleisle’s Letters to Marechal de Contades, found among the Papers of Mons. de Contades, after the Battle of Minden. Translated from the Originals.* 8vo. Price 1s. 6d<sup>½</sup> Payne.

The most remarkable paragraphs of these letters have already appeared in the London Gazette, though a little unfairly curtailed. Perhaps it might be no difficult task to justify the instructions of the Duc de Belleisle, about making a desert of Westphalia and Hesse ; an injunction which means no more than that the French general should consume all the forage and superfluous provision in these countries, in order to render it impossible for their enemies to disturb them in their winter quarters : an expedient authorized by the laws of war, and the practice of the most humane generals : but the insolence, and let us add, the perfidy of the French government, appears much more flagrant in the orders given to the marechal de Contades, with respect to neutral princes, and even to their own allies, the electors Palatine, of Triers, and of Cologne. Contades, it appears from these letters, was directed to infringe the neutrality granted to the prince of Waldec, by taking all the forage and provision that could be found in his country ; and as for the three electors mentioned above, he was exhorted to seize, without hesitation, upon their towns, their arsenals, and artillery, as well as to expel their garrisons : acts of violence and bad faith, which he really committed. Nay, it is too plain, that many officers in the service of these powers, are actually spies upon their masters, and traitors ready to betray their interest in favour of the schemes of France, to which they are infamously devoted. P. 17. speaking of the seizure of Juliers, Belleisle says, “ I know that the Palatine officer, who commands there, is a very good Frenchman.—I have reason to believe, that if it be the sieur de la Roche, who commands there, he will be very glad to be opposed, and that you should furnish him with an excuse for not having obeyed orders, contrary to the king’s service, if such should be sent to him.”—That is, that he will betray

betray the trust reposed in him by his master, in order to oblige the French king.—Is it possible that any prince can be so infatuated, as to throw himself in the arms of a power, so notorious for the violation of treaties for infringing the law of nature and nations, and every tie of honour and good faith ?

Art. 24. *An Answer to that Heterogeneous Letter, addressed to Dr. Wessels, of St. Mary-Axe, and subjoined to the Petition of the Unborn Babes. Dedicated to the young Physicians, by Dr. M'Gripes; Late Student under Dr. Wessels.* 8vo. Pr. 6d. Scot.

With a small addition of decency, common sense, and grammar, this author might be brought to write with some humour. At present he would seem to be an abortion escaped from his cell, in contempt of the virtues of that celebrated tincture, prepared by the very elaborate and learned Dr. H. Wessels, our author's respectable parent in medicine. Horace; that great master in the obstetric art, has pronounced nine years to be the natural term of an author's pregnancy ; and if this law be founded on nature, how crude and unformed must this literary brat have popt into light, who probably resided scarce so many months in the womb of the great Wessels. To the confusion of those much-esteemed drops, the *tinctura embryonum*, this puny bantling has shewn his face, proving thereby the truth of the observation, that doctors prescribe their physic literally, but take it sparingly. But not to enlarge upon an accident which gives us great disturbance, as we think it affects the reputation of the doctor, for whom we entertain a profound respect, let us see whether this unfortunate by-blow bears any of the features of his learned progenitor. ‘ As nothing (says the *fœtus*, addressing himself to the sons of *Æsculapius*) but *decay* of learning, piety, and *wild precept*, prevails in the practice of physic at this time, and we see the barbarous, ignorant *sophisters* daily ascending the seats of eminence, I herein offer you advice, purchased at the expence of long-suffering and honourably starving in the *regular* road of physic, which comfortable situation I at present exist in: let me, therefore, admonish you to fly those delusive, worn-out road stiled regularity ; they are the *foot-paths* of the indolent, lazy, and *nourished* by the idle and careleſs, who seek not the healths of mankind, but filthy lucre. Search with restless zeal to improve the art ; press each drug and simple ; forbear not the fiery torture on each subtle mineral prowl'd from the earth's fertile womb ; the crawling reptile and *obscure ichneumon*, each have their virtue and specific powers, seek them out, and blush not at others jealous envy, but publish your discoveries of their wondrous effects, and shew

shew mankind the strait road to health.' Oh, thou disgrace to thy learned sire, is this thy logic? In thy answer to the Heterogeneous Letter, thou declarest thy parent beateth in the *bye road* of physic; thou acknowledgest thyself to have received thy little instruction from the mouth of that parent; and here, O matchless effrontery, thou assertest thyself, at this present writing, to be starving in a full perriwig in the *regular* road of the profession. To do thee justice, we will acknowledge, however, that there is some humour in that assemblage of medical figures thou hast produced at a consultation; and this we think an ample testimony of our candour and lenity towards thee, after thy presumptuous declaration, that, 'as for that gentle son of Belzebub, Mr. *Critical Review*, he is very welcome to criticise, scrutinise, moralise, or sacrifice any thing contained, or that may hereafter be contained, in any wise notwithstanding.'

Art. 25. Dr. Free's Edition of the Rev. Mr. John Wesley's Second Letter, with Prolegomena for the better Information of the studious English Reader: And a perpetual Comment upon the original Text, addressed to the Reverend Author. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Sandby.

In these lukewarm days of ecclesiastical indifference and languor, Dr. Free, with laudable zeal, like a staunch hound of the church, opens the cry against the false apostles, Wesley and Whitfield, and pursues them with indefatigable perseverance. This true son of the hierarchy attacks these pseudo-prophets with all the artillery of argument, wit, and humour. In this piece he entertains us with a facetious comment upon some letters he had received from the Rev. Mr. John Wesley. We have not room to descant upon particular touches; but, on the whole, we will say, that the said Mr. Wesley has great reason to wish an end were put to the controversy. We are sorry to find, however, that Dr. Free has been but indifferently rewarded for the pains he has taken, the breath he has uttered, and the ink he has shed, *in supporting his majesty's cause, defending his government, and making out his pedigree and title to the crown, better than all his ministers of state, during the late rebellion; as well as in now defending the rights of the church of England.*

'I did expect after all, (says he) that I should have *some* preferment at *some* time or other: but Thomas Holles, duke of Newcastle, I believe was then secretary of state; and Philip now called earl of Hardwick, was then lord-chancellor. They say, that they went at that time to *resign* together: but I believe they did not, and I am sensible, as well as Mr. Pitt and the nation, that they *are in power still*, which I take to be the true reason why I have been so long neglected and oppressed, and that one of *your* sort should have it now in *your* power to play the *jesuit*, and laugh

laugh at me for having thus misapplied my *time* and *labour* in defending the *present* king, and the *present* church-establishment. I am obliged to you to be sure for *opening* my eyes a *little*, I suppose you meant among *other* things, that it should save me for the future some expence in *paper* and *print*, and teach me to resolve with *Homer's* soldier,

“ When bleeding Greece again

“ Shall call Achilles, she shall call in vain.” POPE.

We hope, nevertheless, that the doctor's patriotism will swallow up his resentment; and that in case we should once more (which heaven avert) be involved in such calamities, he will not deprive his poor country, ungrateful as she is, of the benefit of his extraordinary talents.

**Art. 26.** *The Soliloquy of the most renowned the Marshal Duke de Belleisle. To which is subjoined the fourteenth Ode of the first Book of Horace modernized.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Seymour.

Poor old Belleisle! if this be really thy lamentation, thou art to be pitied indeed. Lay aside thy cross and ribbon, and procure a slavering bib; for none but an ideot could utter such a wretched rhapsody.

**Art. 27.** *Low Life above Stairs. A Farce. As it is acted in most Families of Distinction throughout this Kingdom.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Williams.

We know not whether the dullness, or the obscenity of this despicable piece, is the most intolerable; but this we know, that if there is no law, in consequence of which the publisher of such miserable ribaldry can be set in the stocks or pillory, foreigners may, with justice, exclaim that there is neither decency nor police in England.

**Art. 28.** *An Address to a Great Man.* Fol. Pr. 6d. Cooper.

In this address, the minister is exhorted to dispose his sovereign to confer the supreme command of his forces, at this juncture, upon his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, a prince so highly qualified, in all respects, to discharge that important trust with the most consummate abilities; a prince, to whose prowess and military skill, we already owe the preservation of every thing that ought to be dear to Protestants and Britons.

